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1921

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EDITOR

FRANK PIERREPONT GRAVES

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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

JANUARY, 1921

I

THE ESSENCE OF PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

What is "progressive education?" It is difficult to define this new movement in education with precision. The wide range in methods used at the different progressive schools, such as the Organic School of Fairhope, Alabama, the Park School, Baltimore, and the Moraine Park School, Dayton, Ohio, make it hard to describe their fundamental agreement in spirit. Yet it is possible to state the postulates which underly their diversity, if we do not enter too minutely into the details of each.

In their fundamental aim all these schools agree. They all seek to afford more freedom and more responsibility to the pupils. It is a daring experiment. The freedom and responsibility heretofore reserved for the maturity of college years is now given to all children, no matter what their age. At the Moraine Park School, for example, the children in the elementary grades do most of their work thru their own volition. The drill in spelling and arithmetic they carry on among themselves, with very little aid from the teacher. In the Dalton, Massachusetts, High School, the formal recitation is largely supplanted by self-directed study, with teachers in each subject available at any time for conference and for elucidation of difficult points.

In all these schools, too, self-government is largely operative, and discipline is esoteric rather than exoteric. The impulse to rebel being non-existent, order and discipline become simply a question of method, not of pur-

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pose. For the purpose of all is good; and methods can be evolved and carried out by pupils with the aid of the teachers. Autocracy is always maintained under a strain, by means of spies and peepers and many punishments. It never draws a free breath. The sea-captain obtains unity of aim on the part of a motley crew by dint of great personal magnetism, superior physical prowess and intelligence, and constant watchfulness. Such is the ideal of the old-fashioned schoolmaster. It is not the ideal of the progressive educator. If we assume that the duty of the educator is to take pupils somewhere that they do not want to go, galley-slave methods are still necessary. If, however, we assume that children either wish, or can be inspired to wish, to go onward in the search for knowledge, then autocratic methods can be dispensed with.

The innovation made by the leaders in progressive education consists solely in this, that they trust the child-soul. They perceive in it an inherent love of knowledge and progress and unfoldment, and they greatly dare in making the child the captain of his own fate, commander of his own empyreal enterprise in quest of wisdom. For whether is it better to save one's life and lose one's soul? The formal educator says, "I am going to teach you arithmetic and spelling and geography and Latin and algebra and geometry, in order to save your life." And when the task is done, the soul of the child is found to have gone astray, so that its knowledge-desires are *nil*, even tho its knowledge-content be sufficient to pass the college examinations. Were it not better, since life extends far beyond the years of the school system, to send forth the child into the world eager-minded, keen after knowledge, avid for the wells of learning, which form the oases of life? Is anything really gained for the child if study is made hateful to him? Can that ever be education?

The school system overlooks the fact that a child has emotions. Education has fallen behind the advances of the scientific world, which already knows the intimate connection, as between moon and tides, of emotion and

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assimilation. It may seem a far cry from ductless glands to pedagogy. Yet the pregnant fact of connection between the suprarenal glands and health can not be ignored by the educator. Children can not be treated as mere intellectual machines, to be worked on routine schedules. Nor can they be intelligently classified according to their reaction to mental tests. The will not-to-do, or the confusion of a shy soul, may cause an inhibition, the results of which make the subject of such tests appear below the normal; whereas, often such pupils are, if anything, above the normal. Contempt for inferior teachers, indifference to studies beneath their powers, distaste for work crudely thrust upon them, cause many children to malinger and sabotage. The cure is not discipline, but new presentations of the subjects of education. The psychoanalyst has discovered that the emotions are incompatible with tyranny. Suppression leads to distortions and reflexes. Self-control, self-direction, is the only rule to which the emotions will harmoniously submit. Freedom is the breath of life to the emotional nature. And that, too, is the discovery of the progressive educator. In an atmosphere of freedom, the child-soul expands. And only in such an atmosphere can real education, which should consist of the training of the emotions, as well as of the intellect, be carried on.

But, just as the psychologist realizes that there must be some sort of control of the emotions, so the progressive teacher realizes that there must be some control in education. License is not the ideal either of the psychologist or of the educator. How to banish repression and avoid license is the problem that the progressives in education seek to solve. In meeting this problem many degrees of freedom will be found to prevail. Here and there may be found an excess of freedom. It would be strange if this were not so, since reforms are wrought by extremes, not by the golden mean. But the faults of progressive education are the faults of youth, of growth, of metabolism, and not the weakness attendant upon a crystallization,

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which, in an apparent state of health, is the precursor of death in an aging institution.

The cure for the educational ills of today, then, consists in *new presentations of the subject of learning*, in presentations of such a nature that interest is aroused and held, and the emotions work *pari passu* with the intellect. The mental appetite will thus lend assimilative powers. Huxley gave as one of the conditions for scientific discovery an intense love of knowledge, and, ages before that, Aristotle declared that all knowledge begins in wonder. Once such a desire is awakened, the educator may almost be dispensed with, in this day of free libraries and widespread sources. Indeed from this view-point the teacher may be considered not the knowledge-giver, but the mind-awakener.

To arouse interest in the acquisition of knowledge is, then, the first law in a progressive school. And the second is like unto it—to provide such opportunity for physical movement and exercise, and such ideal physical environment for study, as to keep the mind naturally active in a healthy and robust body. One of the tenets of progressive education is the use of movable furniture. Another is easy access to the out-of-doors. Ole Bull as a boy used frequently to jump out of the schoolroom window and run into the fields, from sheer excess of nervous energy. Had he the good fortune to have attended a modern progressive school, the door would have been always open to him, and frequent movement would have prevented any such accumulation of endemic poisons. Is there any body of knowledge important enough to warrant injury to the health of the child in its teens? Educators may think so. Progressive parents do not. That is why they are taking their children out of public schools, where overcrowding and injurious tension prevail, and putting them in this freer sort of schools, where the growing body can have the chance God meant it to have.

To my mind there is no question that those parents who have the means, are able to buy in private progressive

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schools a superior sort of education. This is a pathetic fact. That they should have superior clothes, superior houses, superior means of locomotion and of pleasure-seeking, we can acquiesce in. But that they can buy superior education for their children is a stigma upon democracy. It is a greater injustice than that they can buy intrinsically better food, just to the extent that the mind is more important than the body. Speed the day when this new kind of education, which seems so ideal, compared to the current type, can be given to all, as universal as the air we breath! It is the birthright of every living child. There is no reason why the public schools can not become progressive. One or two important public schools are notably so thruout. Many are so in some departments. The chief difficulty lies in the apathy of the constituents. It takes a long time to arouse public opinion and bring it unanimously to desire the new and the better. To educate the public into seeking this better type of education, should be the chief purpose of all who believe in progressive education.

STANWOOD COBB

OFFICE OF PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
CHEVY CHASE, MARYLAND

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II

ARE THE OLDER "SCHOOL VIRTUES"[1] OBSOLESCENT?

The present generation of teachers should not be altogether content with either the ideals or the methods of its predecessors. It should refine the ideals and improve the methods, and it should also formulate new and wider ideals and strive to attain them. Teachers of the present generation are certainly not blind to this duty. They are looking ahead and planning ahead for better things. It is one of these newer ideals that I wish to examine very briefly.

Our predecessors strove to develop clear thinking and independent thinking and sober living. Today we are striving to develop among our pupils all these virtues and something in addition. Most of us are convinced that education can not be really successful unless it develops in each succeeding generation the willingness to grapple with new problems and the ability to solve these problems. This ideal of "initiative" is reflected in the keen demand that school requirements shall not crush the child's originality. The past generation of teachers emphasized the prime importance of having pupils understand what others had worked out; the present generation has insisted that merely to learn understandingly is not enough; to this must be added an appreciation of what is learned in its application to the solution of a problem. Current theory is now carrying this demand a step further: the "problems" must be those that make an immediate appeal to the learner as worthy of his time and effort.

It is clear that we now have a very wide extension of the older ideal of insuring independence of thought thru first

[1] Abridged and revised from a paper with the same title read at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, Kansas City, February, 1917.

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insuring an understanding of what was learned. The aim now is to liberate the pupil entirely from any mastery which does not appeal to him as productive of beneficial results.

Very few schools, of course, have been able to apply this principle extensively to actual practise without running hard against some serious difficulties. Certain schools have attempted rather wide applications, but these have usually been private or endowed schools, or frankly experimental schools that could live without meeting popular needs. And not infrequently the application of the principle has been only apparent. I have in mind a school of this type to which an acquaintance of mine sent one of his two sons. The boy entered the first grade and for several months he apparently progressed at a favorable rate. Toward the close of the year, however, the father was summoned to the school to discuss his son's welfare. "Your boy does well in certain phases of his work," said the principal. "His progress in construction work and in dancing is most commendable; but he can not read." The father, who had labored under the impression that the school should at least teach the boy to read, suggested that the fault might lie with the teachers of the reading classes. The principal, however, maintained that the school was doing more important things, but that the boy must learn to read before reentering school in the fall. The father saw that the situation was desperate. A family council was held; a division of labor was effected; both the father and the mother gave up their plans for the month's holiday in August; and in September the boy went back to school with an initial mastery of a basic social art. As nearly as I can make out, the methods employed would not have been considered orthodox even by the past generation of teachers, but the results were eminently satisfactory.

Another school virtue that has been relegated to the background by the emphasis of this ideal of initiative is the virtue of thoroness. The teacher of the past genera-

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tion strongly emphasized thoroness of mastery as an essential condition of effective independent thought and action. The first blow to thoroness came with the onslaughts on the doctrine of formal discipline, and now that this line of defense has fallen, the present heavy emphasis of the "immediate problem" bids fair to finish the job. In some quarters, indeed, it has been asserted that what we used to think of as thoroness is quite inconsistent with initiative and originality; that meticulousness in details and facility in looking after small and routine matters are qualities that do not associate readily with ability to solve big problems and enrich the world in its great achievements.

The influence upon school practise of these implications and applications of the ideal of initiative has already been felt, and will be more widely and intensely felt as the ideal gains wider currency. It is expedient then that we examine carefully the assumptions upon which these implications and applications are based; and the need is all the greater because their tendency is to open the lines of least resistance, and every theory that does this needs to be very carefully and critically examined before it is generally accepted.

But I should be the last to emphasize the argument of expediency (or even immediate practical necessity) against the present tendencies. I have little use for that method of disposing of troublesome questions which rests comfortably upon the assertion that a proposal is "all right in theory but will not work in practise." The tendency of a theory that rests upon irrefutable premises is always toward its ultimate enthronement. If a theory is distinctly recognized as "good," it will sooner or later win the victory. The struggle for democracy; the fight against the corn laws; the enthronement of individual liberty—all these and many other social achievements of the first magnitude have won because they rested upon sound theory. Ultimately it is always the philosopher who determines the course of human progress; ultimately it is your Platos and Aristotles, your Voltaires and Rousseaus, your Adam

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Smiths and Ricardos, who are accredited with wielding the great influence.

And so, if the older school virtues are to be retained, they must be retained because their necessity rests, too, upon premises that can not be shaken, and upon values which lie deeper even than the vicissitudes of war and the prosperities of peace.

It is not my purpose to outline the arguments which, in my opinion, go a long way toward establishing these premises and demonstrating these values. But I do wish to point out the crying need for carefully tested facts with reference to the various problems involved. Every assumption involved in a proposal which asks us to pay the price that I have named should be thoroly tested. As an instance of the kind of evidence needed, I may cite the recent findings of Mr. Thorndike regarding the specific question as to whether thoroness, accuracy, and capacity for routine work are, as these new proposals so strongly imply, really inconsistent with initiative and originality.

Mr. Thorndike says:

"During the past month I have been studying the ratings of sixty electrical engineers employed by the Westinghouse Company and rated by the company's officers for originality and seventeen other qualities such as thoroness, knowledge, industry at routine tasks, and the like. Far from there being any antagonism between originality and industry at routine tasks....or between originality and system, there is a positive correlation, and one as close as that between industry and enthusiasm or that between thoroness and system."

It is facts of this sort that we need in order to test every assumption that is being made by those who are asking us to surrender the older school virtues. That our conceptions of these virtues should be refined and their administration improved and enlightened no one will deny.

And I venture to predict that, when the facts are all in, they will tell a story something like this: That far from being inconsistent with initiative and originality, the

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virtues of obedience, duty, discipline, and thoroness will be found to have the closest relationship to the capacity for discovery and achievement; that the systematic mastery of race experience, illuminated, but by no means replaced, by the problematic method of teaching, will be recognized as a primary aim of education; that persistent and dogged application to set tasks will retain its position as a fundamental school virtue; and that, while thoroness of mastery will have a richer and a broader meaning, it will still retain the virile qualities which have hitherto been associated with it.

WILLIAM C. BAGLEY

TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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III

AN INTERESTING EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENT

The Park School of Baltimore has become one of the most studied and quoted schools of the United States because of the way it was organized, its unusual buildings and equipment, and the interesting work being done there. It is a "citizens' committee" school; that is, a group of public spirited men and women conceived and financed it. When they appointed the headmaster, they stated their purpose in double form—to give the pupils who came to the school the best education possible, and to contribute to the betterment of education. The school is therefore a private school only in the sense that it is privately financed by subscriptions and tuition, its purpose being a constructively public one.

There is no claim that the methods used or the things being done are unique or unknown to other educators or other schools. There is, however, an open-mindedness to the best that is being done everywhere, and an attempt to bring together all that has proved itself worth while. This, combined with freedom for executives and teachers to attempt to improve old ways and to develop new ideas, leads to an unusually complete demonstration of the best type of modern education.

Its keynotes are:

1. The use of the child's natural instincts and interests as a driving force in his work.

2. The consideration of the school as a community of which all are citizens with both privileges and duties. This obviates arbitrary laws and unnatural restraint, and brings in a large amount of freedom, of opportunity for initiative, and of self government.

3. The realization that the school is becoming more and more responsible for all sides of the child's develop-

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ment. In addition to its usual duties, it must, therefore, give careful attention to all that affects the physical welfare, and must train for social and moral responsibilities.

4. A scientific study of its pupils, so that their needs and possibilities are diagnosed accurately, in order that each one may be helped to develop to the best of which he is capable.

The Park School is on a nineteen-acre campus accessibly located, but so placed by its elevation and its proximity to one of the city parks, that it will always be in practically open country. The main building is of the one-story, one-exposure type. All classrooms have east exposure, with windows all along that side except near the front wall, and each one is on the first floor with its own door leading out of doors. This is to give the best conditions for light and for free access to the grounds. The east exposure was chosen because it allows the level rays of the sun to shine all over the rooms early in the morning, but the direct sunlight does not shine in for any length of time after school opens. The rooms are therefore lighted evenly, and shades are not necessary.

Every consideration has been given to ideal conditions for health, comfort, happiness, and efficiency. The size and shape of each room was planned in consideration of the distance light could be evenly distributed, the activities of the children who were to occupy it, and their particular physical and mental needs. The attempt to make the building easy to keep clean has resulted in the elimination of all "dust catchers," such as door and window frames, ledges over blackboards, and the usual types of baseboards. Instead of these there are smooth steel mouldings for the frames and baseboards, and rounded tops for the blackboards. All sanitary and hygienic problems are met in a similar way, so that the school can be opened each day in a state of exceptional cleanliness.

The furniture is all movable and is carefully fitted to each child. It is possible to quickly rearrange a room for work in small groups, or even to nearly or quite clear

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the entire floor. There is playground apparatus for both younger and older groups of children, an open air playroom of ample size, a work shop where things are made for home and school—in fact, provision for all the interests and needs of childhood.

The two hundred and fifty children in the school range in age from about four years to about seventeen. There are kindergarten classes for four and five-year olds, and the other classes divide into a six-year lower school, and an upper department of Junior and Senior High Schools, which is finished by most of the pupils in five years. From nine years of age on, the pupils are in school all day, leaving at five o'clock. Thru the sixth grade there is little or no home study, most of the work being done in class where the teacher develops new material, shows the pupils how to investigate for themselves, and in general becomes a co-worker and a guide, rather than a taskmaster and a hearer of recitations. There are ample playtimes thru the day, and after 3.15 the children are on the playgrounds where skilled leaders are ready to teach them games, to act as officials—or even to let them alone if no help is needed.

The school does not follow any "system"—even its own. It does not believe that any one method can have the exclusive claim to being right, except in so far as there is a proved technic in teaching certain subjects, such, for example, as the beginning of reading. An attempt is made in all subjects to make the work seem worth while, to have the pupil actually living it, either in reality or in imagination. If a subject is entirely outside of a child's life, and he is told about it or reads about it, it often makes no great impression. On the other hand, if he can see it on a real living basis, preferably with himself as an actor in it, it is no longer a school subject devised to torment innocent school children—it is life itself. So the children dramatize from kindergarten to graduation. Much is impromptu, crude, their own expression. Some is more carefully done. But always it puts the child inside of a situation instead of leaving him outside of it.

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The children study much of their history by living parts of the lives of the various periods. They have their times of being cave dwellers and Indians in the primitive life study; they are the great men of Greece and Rome. Our own periods of history are relived by them, and from Washington on they act their parts. Patrick Henry's ringing words are heard in Congress, or, as happened only a couple of weeks ago, Lincoln moves his audience to tears. In English the children create—plays, stories, poems, additions or interpolations in the masterpieces they are studying. They write magazines, or publish newspapers, or conduct literary societies. How better can one understand the absent hero than by trying to write his letters home, or the villain than by filling in the details of his plots and treasons? A class in English history has just issued a forty-page typewritten magazine supposed to be published in London in 1589. And in it Drake writes of his voyages, and a maid of honor gives intimate glimpses of her mistress, Mary, Queen of Scots, while the editor gravely discusses the interest question and the Puritans, and the royal treasurer talks of finance. And all thru the book the ability to project one's self into a situation and live it shows on every page.

The pupils go where they can see farming, industries, and arts. It may be a ship in the harbor, a steel plant, a bakery, a newspaper office, or an art exhibit. And the outside world is brought in to them. The advertising manager of a store, the editor of a paper, or an expert on labor conditions, may speak to them and answer their questions. And pictures and pamphlets and "just things" —none of them meant for school work—are all about them all the time. The collection of pictures on geography and industry and other subjects occupies about 2500 square feet—enough to cover a wall ten feet high and two hundred and fifty feet long. Yet it is so arranged that it can all be hung on a wall space about ten feet long, and it is ready for instant circulation to the classrooms when it touches the interests of the children. And pam-

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phlets, railroad and steamship folders, publications of chambers of commerce, government bulletins, travel guides, are classified and are also ready for instant use. A class can travel thru England with a booklet on the English Lake or the Cathedral Country, it can see Japan's development of Korea thru the eyes of the Governor General's report, or it can locate the art of Italy thru its guide books.

Most of the important industries of the United States are represented by samples from the raw material to the finished product. They extend thru textiles and foods and mineral products, and from biology to the making of watches. The best feature of this material is that it can be added to by the pupils. They are always increasing the picture collection, and occasionally a visit to some industry results in a new exhibit of the samples brought back from the trip.

In the lower school, subject lines break down, and an interesting project may use English, history, geography and arithmetic, so intermingled that they can not be separated. Much of the arithmetic comes from games and storekeeping, and measurement in the shop, and even the necessary drill practise becomes interesting because the child's improvement is visualized and made a definite motive. Even in the more academic High School subjects, in mathematics and languages, similar methods are used. Mathematics is made original to a great degree, and it too, is applied in interesting ways, such as in various kinds of measurement, and even in making simple inventions. Foreign languages are used in dramatization and for letter writing to foreign countries. Even Latin has its moments when the pupils become Romans and fight Caesar's campaigns. Every year various teachers and various classes interpret these ideas in different ways, so that no one method of expression is a necessary one, the central idea of the pupil's position in relation to the subject alone being fixt.

Among the interesting features are a "menagerie," where pigeons, chickens, rabbits, guinea pigs, guinea hens,

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Belgian hares, and turtles are kept. The children help to care for their pets, and unconsciously cultivate a love for, and a knowledge of, nature. There is a children's vegetable garden, a flower and shrub garden, and a wild flower garden is being started. A fine grove not only helps in nature study, but provides one of the open-air theaters. The girls learn to cook in real kitchens, of which there are three. These kitchens are furnished with the idea of giving the pupils an ideal of what kitchens should be. In the court between the main building and the playroom is an open-air theater that will seat over a thousand people. Some of the more finished plays are given there. *As You Like It* was presented for graduation week last year.

The pupils have a share in the government of the school. The class presidents form, with the Headmaster, the Committee on Self-government. The Committee takes up questions of the amount of self-government to be allowed various classes and pupils, and all "honor" questions, and acts as a school improvement committee. There seems no reason in a democratic country why democracy should not start in the school. Public speaking is a required subject thru the last five years of the course. Pupils preside over the classes, and they discuss each talk given, noting its strong and weak points, and estimating its value, both from the standpoint of preparation and of achievement. The teacher, of course, also contributes to the discussion, and makes notes for individual criticisms. Training in methods of study, under the direction of the specialists in various subjects, is part of the high school course. This lessens home study and greatly increases the pupils' efficiency.

Every means is taken to discover the needs and possibilities of the pupils, in order to meet those needs as fully as possible. A physician is in daily attendance, and twice a year examines all the pupils. These examinations are most searching, and often discover unsuspected defects that might lead to inconvenience or even to serious consequences. Group and individual mental tests are used

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to help in locating strength or weakness and to determine the pupil's fitness for different studies, as well as to help to plan his future after leaving school. Simple scales have been devised by which the teachers can study the development of mental, social and moral characteristics that underlie success in school and in later life. For example, a pupil is rated as being in one of five industry classes in each subject.

These classes are:

1. Indicates that the pupil tries to get as much as possible from the course, showing enough interest and initiative to investigate beyond the teacher's requirement.

2. Indicates that the pupil conscientiously meets all requirements, both in giving attention and in doing assigned tasks.

3. Indicates that the pupil has the general intention of conscientiously applying himself to his studies, but fails often enough in carrying out this intention to force the teacher to take too much responsibility for work the pupils should do.

4. Indicates that the pupil is decidedly irregular in his attention and application, so that the teacher must continually apply pressure to obtain satisfactory results.

5. Indicates that the pupil will not, or can not, hold his attention to his work. This may be shown in class, in project work, or in study, or in all.

In this way the teacher is not likely to think only of subject matter and pages in a text book, but rather studies the development of the child, trying always to keep it normal, well-balanced and complete. The subjects also are tested by "standardized" tests, especially the more formal subjects, such as spelling and arithmetic, for a natural question in regard to a school that works as freely as The Park School is whether the formal side suffers. These standardized tests have been made by experts, and have been given to large numbers of school children, so that standards of excellence for each grade are known, and it is possible by giving the test to find out whether a

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class is above or below an average of classes of the same age. An example is the spelling scale, which is composed of the thousand words most commonly used. It is possible to choose from this list fifty words of about the same difficulty on which a fifth grade can be expected to average 50%, a sixth grade 66%, etc. Such tests applied to The Park School pupils show them far ahead of standards in all subjects. One test showed a seventh year class past the point normal for graduation from the high school in its ability to get information from reading.

The result of the establishment of The Park School, and of other similar schools, has been a marked increase of interest in educational improvement. Other schools have copied this school in part or in whole; educators from over half the states of the Union have visited it, inquiries from all over the country are continual. Classes of teachers in training use it for observation, a public school system has asked the privilege of putting one of its teachers on the faculty for several months in order to bring back an intimate touch with its methods. The Headmaster is frequently called in to advise on educational questions, to speak on modern tendencies and methods in education, or to meet and consult with the faculty of another school.

The most encouraging and significant thing about it all is the fact that such a modest attempt to do as well as possible in educating a group of children can arouse so much interest and can so widely affect school conditions and methods. It may mean that example is once more proving itself more effective than any amount of preaching.

Eugene Randolph Smith

The Park School
Baltimore, Md.

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IV

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

What is meant by "progressive education" and how can it be determined? In order to estimate whether education has progressed or not, we must assume the possibility of movement, and then set up a starting-point from which to measure this movement and its direction. We, therefore, must look at certain phases of education and use them as our starting-point for determining whether we have advanced or whether like Alice in Wonderland at the May Tea-Party, we just keep moving round, or like Alice in Thru the Looking Glass, whether we have been running, gasping for breath, thru centuries upon centuries only to find ourselves at the last under the very tree from which we started.

Progress is a human concept. Progress differs from change and evolution. These latter are universal and inevitable: progress is unique. It is not inevitable nor in the nature of things. It is dependent upon human energy and human intelligence. In order to decide whether any movement in education be the result of mere change or if it be progress, there must be evolved definite criteria of judgment. These criteria for measuring progress must be applied to each new movement and to all changes made in educational procedure to determine if they be mere change or if real advance has been made. If there be any purpose at all in progress, it is in the preparation of mankind for the rational purposive direction of its own future. Not only does this consist in getting nearer to ends already sought, and enriching these prior purposes; but also of forming new ones. This seeking for new possibilities leads to the discovery of new means of execution, and progress takes place. To call in the aid of science and to adopt its method in intelligently directing human affairs, then, would be in line of progress.

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Dewey speaks of the school as the fundamental means for securing this progress. "To an extent characteristic of no other institution save that of the state itself, the school has power to modify the social order." The school, however, in and of itself, may be both static and dynamic. The history of education since the Middle Ages offers interesting examples of how the school can serve as a social agency engaged in fixing a peculiar type of mind. Whether the school shall be merely an agency for fixing a prevailing system, or whether it shall become a constructive force dealing death to superstition and special privileges, and granting vigor and life to intelligent moralization and general weal, depends largely upon the question of content and method of instruction and upon the mode of administration.

Education, when it becomes the means to social improvement may be designated as progressive. Progressive education involves, first, such a modification of existing practises as will provide for the recognition that the individual is primarily social and that social maladjustment hinders individual development. Its business is to create a favorable atmosphere by conceiving the school as a definite field of social relationships, where social habits are forged for present and future situations alike. It should be a real society, a cooperative democratic society, where consciously and definitely, opportunities are afforded for friendly, voluntary types of association in place of coercive, authoritative formed groups. The administration of the schools must be of such a character that provision can readily be made for various types of children having differentiated abilities. There must be a scientific way for determining these abilities, and measuring them. Such modification of the school organization should then be made as will secure to each individual that type and kind of training and education as fits his peculiar needs. The curriculum adopted under the head of progressive education aims at those objectives that are socially serviceable, but yet are not sufficiently attained as a result of ordinary experience. These must be determined by a careful survey of the field of social endeavor

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and the shortcomings of individuals in certain directions noted. Careful remedial policies must then be devised to meet these needs. The modification of method that progressive education demands is found in the emphasis upon the word "learn" instead of upon the word "teach." Formerly a teacher always spoke in terms of "teaching." "I planned to teach such a lesson" or "I taught the children this thing." Now quite a different aspect is given to the situation when the teacher plans the children shall "learn" a given activity. This means that there must first be a desire aroused in the child to want to learn the activity. It is quite a different thing to say "I shall teach the children how to be healthy" from saying "I shall have the children desire to be healthy." Once this desire has been aroused, the progressive educator follows James's advice. "Strike while the iron is hot" and proceeds to build habitual conduct upon this inherited or acquired "want."

The following illustrations are selected from the public schools that are carrying on what, according to the foregoing standards, may be cited as progressive education.

A new subject in the curriculum of these schools is "Health." Not physiology, not hygiene, but certain topics are presented to the children in such a manner that they desire to become healthy human beings and to work toward this end. According to our standard, this is certainly an objective, socially serviceable and not sufficiently attained as a result of ordinary practises; hence, a progressive curriculum may well include it. If the method used is to be scientific according to the definition set up, there must be a curriculum planned to include all the topics that might well affect individual and community health, such as diet, dress, ventilation, recreation, and the like. But first there must be made a careful survey of the community where this subject is to be included in the curriculum for the purpose of disclosing the needs and the shortcomings of that particular locality. This is to preclude the possibility of prescribing quack remedies, and to provide the opportunity of prescribing

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those remedies, the needs for which a painstaking diagnosis has revealed.

The problem selected for investigation by six of the public schools of Baltimore was to "study the health of the child in relation to school work." In order to prosecute this study it was necessary:

(A) To weigh and measure every child in the school.

(B) To formulate definite ends based upon data thus obtained. These ends shall control later teaching in the formation of health habits.

(C) To devote a definite amount of time daily to the teaching of "health."

First a careful study was made of the diet of the pupils of the schools. Then the children were weighed and measured. 471 children in the immigrant section were weighed.

Of these 5% were above normal weight, 57% were below weight. Of this group (105 children in all), 22% were more than 7% below normal. To be persistently 7% and more below normal weight is a significant, if not a serious, symptom in children. The greatest number of underweight people in this school was found to be in the first and second grades. It was also found that while a large number of children were 7% or 8% below weight, a goodly number showed a deficiency of 11%, and that as many as 55 were more than 10% below normal. In another school where all the children come from comfortable and even wealthy homes, 906 children were examined. Of these 27% were overweight; 12% were of normal weight, and 61% were underweight; 22% were more than 10% underweight; 13% were from 7% to 10% underweight; and 26% were from 1% to 7% underweight. The reports from the other schools show the following percentage of underweight children, 74%, 60%, 56%, 64%, 63%.

Under the direction of the principal, Miss Williams, several problems were investigated.

(A) Do rest periods make an appreciable difference in the children's health?

(B) What effect will a daily five minute period of

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breathing exercises have upon the weight report?

(C) How much will corrective dental work and clean teeth advance nutrition?

(D) Will a certain quantity of milk taken regularly increase weight?

(E) How far are certain types of breakfasts affecting weight?

These problems were carefully investigated for several months by the teachers and from the data secured the following conclusions were reached:

The value of proper breakfasts needs strong emphasis in the home as well as in the school.

The value of milk as daily food is but a single phase in the matter of health improvement and must receive supplementing.

The proper care of the teeth is closely connected with nutrition.

The interested and intelligent teacher can do much toward improving the health of her pupils.

Thus a definite curriculum was formulated for the subject of health in this school. It included at the start just the items listed above. The method was as progressive as was the manner of determining the curriculum. Nutrition classes were formed for the children of 10% or more underweight. These met the teacher regularly twice a week for 30 or 40 minute periods for reporting and for instruction. A graph record for each child was kept. All were weighed once a week and a graphic evidence for the child's inspection and encouragement was kept. At the period of the year when height and not weight is making a spurt, it was found that of 58 children whose weight records were examined, the following results were noted:

38 showed increased weight.

4 maintained weight.

7 showed some decrease. (A thoro physical examination was recommended for these.)

A general health crusade was conducted in the meantime

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in the entire school, one or more daily periods being devoted to the teaching of health and health habits. A daily morning inspection of the window sills revealed an increasing number of bottles of milk for recess lunches. Posters illustrating food and food values were studied and new ones originated by the children. Charts of food desirable for breakfasts were studied by the children. Menus for breakfasts were prepared by them. A study of the source, distribution, and costs of wholesome breakfast foods was made. Daily inspection of teeth was made by the teacher, and all those using tooth brushes reported. The children were taught a motion song to the tune of Yankee Doodle, which starts with "We brush our teeth both morn and night, we brush them fine and dandy" and so on. Thus a daily reminder of this necessary practise was given to the primary pupils at the same time a lesson in the correct way of brushing the teeth was afforded by the motions. A health chart was posted in each schoolroom and weekly health bulletins were issued. An attitude is being carefully fostered that in most cases it is rather a disgraceful thing to fall ill and that with careful observances of the rules for health almost any normal person need not be sick. With the help of the teacher, the children made out "health rules." These the children copied and decorated and took home to be kept in their bedrooms. A careful report was called for each morning by the teacher to see how many rules were followed the previous day. In such a way the teachers are endeavoring by repetition with satisfaction to build habits that will make healthy children.

A second movement in progressive public schools is the attempt to adjust the school work to the child and not have the child fit the work. Frequently the schools attempt to force children thru courses of study beyond their intellectual capacities. These children find it impossible to assimilate knowledge and a large proportion leave school with little direct preparation for the responsibilities of life, simply because they have been unable to receive nourishment from the intellectual diet prescribed them by the

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educational authorities. It is desirable that such children not only be kept in schools but that they receive definite education. Terman says that in "the conservative school system offering only the traditional courses, it is perhaps just as well that pupils of 80 I. Q. (*i. e.* 10% of all) should drop out by the age of fifteen years. By that time they have got about all they can get from the older type of restricted elementary curriculum. Continuation would mean nothing more than to remain hopelessly stranded in the sixth or seventh grade, without further effective training except training in failure."[1] It is evident, then, that the function of progressive education is to find out what are the capacities of the pupils attending the schools, and then to evolve such a course of study and such methods that these capacities may be fully developed. Universal testing of school children would save many a child from being a misfit in school and in after life. This does not refer only to the backward and retarded, but it also affects the accelerates and the intellectually superior upon whom the future progress of civilization depends.

The Mental Hygiene Society of Maryland aided the authorities of Baltimore to adjust the school work to the child by making a survey of three public schools from the point of view of mental examination. The survey was made thru the cooperation of the Health Department. Three schools were selected that were fairly representative, "that is schools of an average number of reported backward children, so that it would not be possible to say afterwards that the figures were not generally applicable." All three are representative, co-educational schools of American-born children.

It was impossible to examine all children at this time; therefore, only the children in those schools who were reported as "backward" by the teacher were tested first. Each child was examined separately, and under the most favorable conditions of quiet and privacy. A full Binet-Simon Yerkes test of each child's mentality was made,

[1] Terman L., *The intelligence of school children*, p. 269.

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and a general and detailed observation was taken of the child during the examination, his particular mode of reacting, ability to grasp directions, capacity for reasoning, and memory.

The data were compiled carefully and the following facts were revealed: there were 172 children examined in one school reported as not doing average work in the classes: 37 or 3.08% of these were very subnormal, 88 or 7% were retarded, 6 normal, 41 above average. In the second school, there were only 20 children reported as not doing average work: 13 were very subnormal, 6 were retarded, 1 normal. In the third school there were 76 children examined: 36 (or 3.6% total school population thru all lower grades) were very subnormal, 27 retarded, 13 normal.

What does such data signify? It means that in each school there are two classes of children, who because of inferior mentality can not assimilate the work planned for the normal children. These children need a special type of training and special classes must be made for them. It also means that the normal child can not receive that type of instruction and that sort of education suited to him until these children have been segregated. Further, it shows plainly that the superior children are being so neglected that instead of being conserved for the uplift of civilization, they are being so badly maladjusted that they may actually turn out to be a menace to society.

Each of the above cases was investigated to find out, if possible, the cause of the maladjustment. It appeared that the curriculum needed readjustment. This was a matter for careful consideration and experimentation and is still in the making. In addition, it was found that a great deal of trouble was caused because there was no adequate provision for the physical energies of the pupils. Adjustments in the daily program were made. Half-hour or twenty minute periods of desk work were followed by a few minutes in the open air. A dash around the running track, a jump or two, converted the previously restless, misbehaving child because of his surplus energy into an interested pupil.

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A strong effort was made to increase the recreational facilities in the schools. Plays, games, and athletics became a regular part of the curriculum, and noted improvement resulted. Special classes for the retarded and mentally defective children were formed: curricula and methods suited to these types were adopted. The superior children were either placed in opportunity classes or were allowed to advance rapidly from grade to grade as they became ready for promotion.

Survey tests in reading, spelling and arithmetic were given thruout, and records kept of the achievements of each individual. Children were encouraged to beat "their own records," and industry thus fostered will, no doubt, lead to specific habits of work. Projects in literature, in history, and in nature study broke down the schoolroom isolation and led to the formation of cooperative, sympathetic groups working together for common aims. Thus specific social habits were practised daily and hourly.

Not only is progressive education carried on in the city schools, but there is a great wave of progress similarly sweeping over the rural schools. This movement is evidenced in the strong tendencies of the rural schools to adopt such curricula and such methods as will make the school the community center of the region. The method in rural schools, as in other centers of progressive education, is scientific. Before any policy or change is inaugurated a survey of the community is made. This reveals strengths and weaknesses alike, and indicates the strategic points of attack. After a careful study has been made of the needs of the region, hypotheses are formulated as to the cause of existing conditions, and curative measures are suggested for remedying these. Controlled experiments test the validity of these hypotheses and remedies. Data are kept showing the results the new measures and of the contrasting results in the controlled groups. Permanent remedial measures are then based upon these findings. These remedial measures find a place in the policy and the curriculum of the school and are launched with all the potency possible. It is so planned

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that satisfying elements are connected with the needed amount of exercise and practise in the new adoptions until habitual conduct is established.

A rural school which deserves citation as an example of progressive education, is Mount Airy School, of Carroll County, Maryland. It is known as a "Center School," because it receives children from a district extending over three miles. What to do, educationally, for all the many different types of children in the usual one room school containing pupils from the first to the eighth grade under the care of a single teacher, has always been the problem of the "Little Red School House." In the Carroll County School the following supposition was acted upon. If the children in the upper grades, the seventh and eighth, could be transported to a school suitable to their needs, greater numbers of these older children would persist in the grades and attend high schools. Starting upon this assumption, in a three mile area, all the children above the sixth grade are transported to what is known as a "Center School." Wherever possible, this center school is located in a high school building or in a building adjoining a high school, thus placing these older children in direct contact with the high school children and high school activities. It was hoped that such a stimulating environment might produce a desire to attend high schools. This proved to be the case, because, before other changes were made, it was noted that more children were attending the "Center Schools" than were assembled in the seventh and eighth grades of the other rural schools in the county.

The curriculum, however, did not fit the needs of these or of the other schools in the community. The objective of the supervisor and principal is that these children shall become rural-minded in the right sense of the word. By this is meant that they form such a real love for the country, with all its activities, problems, and interests that they desire to stay in the country and become active participants in its development and progress. In other words, those in authority desire the school to grow in ability to meet the

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community needs, as well as in power to bring to the community those broad outside interests that shall make of this rural population, enlightened, world citizens. Various topics and subjects were tried before determining upon the curriculum. Health work and healthful recreation were among the first to be admitted to the course of study. Parents came to see the children weighed, measured, and receive careful physical examinations. Remedial measures were adopted and weekly health bulletins were issued. Parents and children alike were delighted when standard weight was achieved. "Health" became an ordinary subject for discussion. Hot lunches were served daily. These provided activities in domestic science and at the same time permitted many lessons in correct table manners to be inconspicuously taught. Their influence was felt not only in the schools but reflected also in the homes. The social family lunch-periods became a daily affair and replaced the solitary feeding from individual lunch boxes.

With the older children, projects in agriculture aroused strong interests in school work and at the same time brought the community and the school in greater and greater sympathy and cooperation. Twenty-five farmers in one year requested to have milk tests performed upon their dairy product. The children made these tests under the guidance of an expert teacher in agriculture, Mr. Smith, the principal of the school. Thirty requests for soil tests came to the school from the community and formed the nucleus of careful laboratory work for the children. In one year two thousand ears of corn were sent in from the farmers of this locality to be tested. A number of farmers invited the principal to give pruning and spraying demonstrations in their orchards. Agriculture, therefore, became an adopted subject in the seventh and eighth grades and in the high schools of this community. Careful records were kept of the attendance and enrollment of the school, and, altho it was found that some of the children left before completion of the full course, still great improvement was noted. A careful investigation of every case where pupils left

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school before completing the full course revealed the fact that a goodly number of these were girls. Upon inquiry it was found that the curriculum was not giving these girls what they most desired. Domestic science courses were offered. These made a strong appeal to a great many. Some of the girls, however, in this rural community wanted to go into business. Commercial courses were what they needed. These, too, were offered, and the result is that from eight to twelve girls yearly register for this work.

The principal discovered a great deal of retardation with all its attendant ills of slack interest, of bad attendance, and of bad behavior. A survey was made of the ability of each pupil in the formal subjects. It was found in a great number of instances, that the teachers were holding their classes for a higher achievement than the standard achievement in the country. Established standards were then adopted as the school standards for amount and accuracy of this formal work. This enabled the teachers to have more time for work in art, in music, in athletics, in current events, in dramatics, in literature. Literary societies flourished and often entertained the community. Dramatic clubs were formed and gave plays. This brought school and community closer together. Thus a most happy relationship of school and community is gradually being established.

Education in the public schools may justly be called progressive when it meets the following conditions. First, when it selects for its goal, the cultivation of the capacity for continual growing in the power to control and direct human development intelligently. Second, when it adopts a scientific method, such a method as seeks by accurate testing and measuring to discover the needs and problems of any given community. By keen analysis, it formulates hypotheses concerning the cause of these difficulties; by careful experimenting under controlled conditions, it tests the validity of these hypotheses; and finally, by judicious planning, it administers correct remedial policies.

Florence Eilau Bamberger

The Johns Hopkins University
Baltimore, Md.

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V

THE PROGRESSIVE PRIVATE SCHOOL

One of the hopeful by-products of the recent war is the stimulation of a widespread interest in educational theory and practise. The sudden and unforeseen demand for educated men of all ages in positions of responsibility, as executives, as research workers, as propagandists, and the frenzied effort to concentrate the essentials of professional training into the short time available at such a crisis called the attention of even the casual observer to the values that accrue from effective training. The revelations of appalling ignorance among the mass of the people, and the unintelligent, shortsighted, selfish and partisan policies pursued by professed leaders of the political and the industrial world, both during and after the war, have shaken our complacent faith in the success of our boasted universal education.

We have no desire to minimize the contribution made to our national development by various educational forces during the past one hundred and fifty years. Nevertheless, when all has been said, it must be admitted that we have not succeeded in producing thruout the nation that fine blend of intelligence and morality to which our forefathers confidently looked forward as the inevitable result of the diffusion of learning thru common schools, academies, and colleges. In the years immediately following the revolutionary war, men of perception and foresight repeatedly urged the necessity of generous provisions for education on the ground that only an enlightened people could maintain a democratic form of government. Succeeding generations, not scrutinizing too closely the actual results, assumed that the multiplication of educational machinery ensured the desired ends. Secure in the belief that our experiment was a success, we optimistically undertook

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to make the whole world a safe place for democracy. Disappointment over our meager accomplishments changes to chagrin as we unexpectedly find ourselves confronted with the more difficult and pressing problem of making our own democracy safe for ourselves.

In this crisis the schools are in the paradoxical position of being looked upon both as the scapegoat and the potential savior of the situation. Schools and teachers are in one breath denounced for what they have done or have failed to do, and, in the next, are called upon with simple faith to revolutionize our educational system and to produce overnight "a fully democratized generation," whatever that may mean. The current magazines, from those of aristocratic tendencies, which preserve caste lines between reading matter and advertising, to the more popular publications, in which the two mingle in democratic simplicity and chaos, all are offering criticisms on the present situation, suggestions and theories for the school of the future. It is a promising sign that many of these articles are written by laymen. There is a feeling of general dissatisfaction with the output of the schools. More than this, fathers and mothers, who have only a lukewarm interest in education in general, realize that their own children are spending long days and many years in the schoolroom with very inconsiderable results. They are voicing their dissatisfaction and are moreover taking the initiative in suggesting reforms. It is true that the principles underlying many of these new programs have long been advocated by progressive educators and that schools here and there have been trying them out successfully, but, heretofore with scant encouragement from the conservative public. Now that many parents are becoming actively interested, even to the point of sponsoring schools for progressive education and of giving publicity to such movements, a more rapid adoption of progressive ideas may be expected, for the teaching profession is not so hopelessly reactionary as some of our friends like to think.

As democracy was the watchword of the war, so it has

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become the shibboleth of the new education. Even publishers of textbooks, quick to make use of the latest catchword, already guarantee their books to teach "Americanism and Democracy." To label a school, a program, or a curriculum democratic or undemocratic is to sanction or condemn it. There is, however, little unanimity of opinion as to what, precisely, constitutes democracy and just how the individual may best be fitted to play his part acceptably in a democratic community. The problem is not so simple as it seemed one hundred years ago, when the New York commissioners recommended as the course of study for common schools, reading, writing, arithmetic, and the principles of morality, "those branches of education which are indispensably necessary to every person in his intercourse with the world and to the performance of his duties as a useful citizen." The program of 1815 probably came nearer to solving the problems of that day than the usual school program of today does toward meeting the needs of this generation. At that time much of the necessary education came naturally from daily life. With the growth of specialization in industry and the economic and social changes of the past century, there has arisen a need of special instruction and of increased mental equipment to meet new conditions and to provide an extension of the interests which give life a purpose and an ideal. The "useful citizen" is still the goal of the school, but there is the widest diversity of opinion as to how he is to be produced.

Some writers develop definite programs; others, dealing in generalities as brilliant as they are unenlightening, merely demand reforms, leaving it to someone else to work out the difficult and necessary details. Mr. Edward Yeomans[1] represents one point of view when he says that "the world's institutions even of a standard democratic type may smash up," unless the philosophy of the school shop is recognized. He would make the shop the center

[1] *The school shop* by Edward Yeomans. The Atlantic Monthly, June 1920.

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of the school life. There children may learn respect for handwork thru the joy of doing it and by building locomotives, for example, understand that "soundness of heart is the first essential of a locomotive builder." Similarly, no doubt, of a plumber and a carpenter. One hopes that means may be found to cultivate the same virtue in the future manipulators of essential commodities. And yet we pause to wonder how far a sound heart will carry the locomotive builder or the sugar speculator, unaccompanied by sound thinking; and whether the apotheosis of the school shop will ensure the latter. That man became master of the material world is due not merely, as Mr. Yeomans implies, to the fact that he used his hands; but that he used his reason to make the work of his hands effective. Soundness of heart is unquestionably desirable, and yet we are not much disposed to preach, "Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever." Constructive goodness depends on straight thinking, and sheer goodness untouched by cleverness tends to produce the objectionable Pollyanna type of person whose chief characteristics are thoughtless optimism and misguided helpfulness.

But this is, perhaps, carping criticism, for it is indeed an attractive schoolroom to which Mr. Yeomans introduces us and under the direction of the all-wise teacher vistas open toward literature, art, and history, and all the intellectual delights that make life worth while and full of meaning, when handwork palls. Nor is his ideal of freedom and spontaneous interest impossible of realization, when enough parents support it. For Mr. Yeomans is scarcely justified in saying, "The school person does not yet realize the value of the school shop." I venture to say that there are more school persons than school patrons who see eye to eye with him. Mr. Yeomans has not been obliged to deal with the irate parent who wants to know why Mary, aged eight, is allowed to make rag dolls instead of learning the capitals of the states or doing long division. The skeptical mother who wants an old-fashioned education is not convinced by any assurance that Mary is joy-

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ously acquiring the elements of a real education while she computes the amount and cost of the material she uses, learns the story of the cotton with which she stuffs the doll, and finally gets some notion of social solidarity, when she gives the precious work of her hands to a convalescent child in the hospital.

At the other extreme from Mr. Yeomans is Mr. Sharpe, an eloquent, if unenlightened, advocate of democracy in the schools.[2] No school shop for him. Tho he grudgingly grants that "sloyd, dressmaking and cooking" are innocuous in the grades and may even "give necessary variety to their study," he deprecates all handwork and believes it "should end with the eighth grade, the next four years, except for the deficient, being devoted to books. . . . [with] no machinery in the basement to steal away the quiet." If the shop were to become the center of the public school, he might be forced to send his four rising citizens to a despised private school, where they would be exposed to the fate, which he so heartily deplores, of learning something that would help them to pass a college entrance examination. Mr. Sharpe's idea of training for democracy is contiguity and uniformity. Let Johnny Jones and Tony Ciprianni sit side by side for twelve years and study the same lessons and the trick is turned. He admits that this school will give only a certain formal and routine training and we learn, later, that the real education is to take place at home under wise parental guidance.[3] Mr. Sharpe seems curiously ignorant of the fact that wise parental guidance in matters of education is precisely what something over ninety-nine per cent of the children lack and that the very type of education which he lauds and which his children have not received in the public school, is being given in the more progressive private schools, the very name of which is to him anathema.

Perhaps, ideally, there should be no private schools in

[1] *Patrons of democracy* by Dallas Lore Sharpe. Atlantic Monthly, November, 1919.

[2] *Education for individuality*, Atlantic Monthly, May, 1920.

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a democracy. Unquestionably, every child ought to have the best there is for him in education. But it is unfortunate that the term "private school" should have in the mind of any intelligent person a connotation of exclusiveness and either superficiality or formalism. It is the progressive private school that is today the best exponent of the democratic ideal in education. In such schools the new interest in education is finding expression. These schools do not regard tradition as binding simply because it is tradition; they consider the welfare of the individual of more importance than the smooth running of the educational machine; they are reconstructing curriculum and methods to meet the needs of society as it exists at the present moment. These policies have hitherto rarely been found outside those schools which have grown up under the fostering care of some Department of Education or in an occasional school under the absolute control of a far-sighted executive. There is at present, however, a well defined movement toward the establishment of private schools for the express purpose of advancing progressive ideas in education. This condition has come about not because people have ceased to believe in the theory of public schools for all children, but because control of the public schools has largely past out of the hands of the interested private citizen into the hands of politicians, and because it is next to impossible to cut thru the red tape of the system and make any radical changes. Many of the new schools are to some degree community undertakings; that is, they are backed by a group of citizens who are undertaking to help solve the educational problem in their particular locality. They have the advantages that belong to any corporate undertaking. They are educating the adult members of the community who are responsible for them as truly as they are the children who attend them.

It is charged that the private schools are undemocratic because they are accessible only to those people who are able to pay tuition. In the present economic situation it may not be impertinent to inquire whether the people

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who have the most to spend are not just the ones who most need an enlightened education. In fact, the progressive schools attract not so much people of wealth as people of ideas. Moreover, the cultivation of the democratic attitude of mind depends on something far deeper than the question of tuition. The private school is not private because it desires to confine the good things of education to a limited number, but because that is the condition of its existence. The majority of the electorate does not really want a change in the schools; if it did, the change would be forthcoming. Even with an apathetic or hostile public, some teachers of unusual ability have been able to remove obstacles, circumvent restrictions, and show what the public schools might become.

The progressive schools are essentially experimental. This does not mean that they are open to the exploitation of every new and untried theory, but that they are able to base their practise on sound educational principles, even if these principles have not the sanction of all antiquity. They have one abiding principle, the good of the child. Their program is flexible. They are not afraid to scrap a scheme if it proves unprofitable or to try a new one that promises well. Fortunately the clientele that is attracted to such schools is intelligent enough to know that experimentation is as necessary in education as in any other science, that educational results can not be obtained in a day or a year, and that their children, tho they may miss some bits of conventional information, will gain many things of far more importance.

Tho these schools are alike in principle, they differ widely in details. Each has its own plan and independent purpose. One school definitely keeps books from the pupils until they are eight or nine years old. Another, believing that children are as eager to use their brains as their hands, and seeing no reason why they should be denied that privilege, introduces them to books as soon as they evince a desire for them, not neglecting to give them ample opportunity for the exercise of every other capacity. One

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school attempts to get a cross section of society, intellectually and socially. Another works out its problem with a more homogeneous group or aims at the discovery and development of exceptional ability. One bars the classics. Another believes that the study of Latin affords an exceptional opportunity for acquiring an objective attitude toward the vernacular, and that, since language is the medium of thought and communication, every means of cultivating linguistic values should be made use of; and, moreover, that, for those pupils whose life interests are sure to be largely intellectual, the classics furnish a desirable, if not an indispensable background.

Each has its own definite objective; but under all runs the principle which is the principle of democracy, that each child shall have an opportunity to develop his own individuality under the most favorable conditions, due regard being always had for the rights of others. Freedom for the child under wise direction and freedom for the teacher to deal with individual needs is characteristic of the new education. The program is not determined by what is required in grade six, seven, or eight, but by what Mary and Susie and Tom and Peter want and can assimilate. It gives the fullest recognition to the meaning and significance of individual differences. The modern schoolmaster, like the modern physician, studies each case for its individual symptoms and does not prescribe quinine and calomel for every ailment.

Such recognition does not mean that each child follows his impulses unchecked, but that he has an opportunity to develop his own tastes, to take his own point of view, to work out his own problems, to form independent opinions. Notwithstanding its flexible program and its varied activities, the new school does not cut entirely loose from the usual curriculum. So much publicity has necessarily been given to the new departures that it sometimes seems that arithmetic, geography, history and the languages have been banished entirely. In fact, they are still with us, but the point of approach is changed. Pupils study

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not to acquire a given number of facts or a certain dexterity of manipulation, but that they may enter intelligently into the life of the world. They are given opportunity to think and feel and reason, and to express their thoughts and feelings thru the medium of art, of music, of drama and of words, oral or written. Given the chance to initiate action in organization or in creative work, they learn to check up their ideas by reality, to criticize and to weigh values and not to accept glowing visions as actualities. They learn their duty as citizens by being good citizens of the school community and by directing its affairs. Above all things, the school hopes to turn them out intelligent human beings, at home in the world, self directing, capable of leadership or of cooperation, as the occasion may demand.

It is by developing an intelligent generation that progressive schools are hoping to make their greatest contribution to democracy. Our recent political history indicates that, whatever our schools have accomplished in the past, intelligence is only an accidental product. If our forefathers were right in thinking that intelligence and morality were necessary for the perpetuation of the republic, it is time to try some new means of producing a generation with these qualifications. Nor are children so averse to intellectual activities as we are sometimes led to believe.

Not only does the progressive school hope to give all its pupils an opportunity to become intelligent citizens; it hopes to give the extraordinary child, the genius, a chance. Public opinion has long granted the need of special education for defectives of various sorts, but it has been slow to recognize the needs of the gifted child. Mr. John Butler Yeats says that the supreme sin of modern democracy is that it encourages the common man, and he asks whether a man of genius is possible in a rich and busy democracy. "In a scientifically drained country there are no rivulets," he says, "no tumbling streams, no cascades, only straight canals, and reservoirs and well contrived ponds in which gas lamps can admire them-

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selves." But the progressive school will take care that the rivulets and the cascades and the tumbling streams are not reduced to the dead level of the commonplace.

One practical problem which the progressive school must meet is that of adjustment to the present educational system. An individual school can not live a wholly isolated life. If it is to serve a community, it must be possible for pupils to come to it and to go from it to other schools without too great loss from maladjustment. Moreover, there are the colleges to reckon with. The question whether this or that mode of procedure will fit for college, calls a halt to many a schoolmaster's flight of fancy. It remains a matter of speculation how far the cause of education would be advanced if such flights of fancy were all unchecked by the powers above. It is the fashion to decry all college entrance requirements—especially those of the women's colleges—as if they were intentionally set up as stumbling blocks and rocks of offense. It may be noted in passing that the critics do not necessarily show their disapproval by refusing to send their children to those institutions whose procedure they most deplore. Far be it from any secondary school principal to defend all the various idiosyncracies of all the various colleges as set forth in their entrance requirements, when it is scarcely possible to find two, east or west, which agree precisely as to what constitutes fitness for undertaking college work. Yet in fairness we must admit that what the colleges desire above everything else is an intelligent body of students. If their requirements and their mode of selection are inadequate, and even, at times, defeat their own ends, nevertheless, it has been proven possible for a pupil to meet the most rigid requirements after enjoying the greatest freedom of development, and to have a vigorous, healthy body, a keen, alert mind, facility in self expression thru many mediums, independence of judgment, an open-minded attitude toward the world, and an appreciation of the "moral obligation of intelligence."

Elsie Garland Hobson

The Phebe Anna Thorne Model School
Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa.

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VI

THE OUTLOOK FOR LATIN

Conflicting views regarding the outlook for foreign language studies in our schools are natural in these times of educational unrest. The same intellectual forces that operated so potently a generation ago to win adequate recognition for the sciences are now operating more broadly on the whole scheme of educational organization and of educational values. Directly, these influences are taking shape in an increasing demand for various vocational activities and are finding expression in increasing emphasis on studies that are regarded as possessing high utility value in equipping young people for efficiency in diverse pursuits. The advocates of vocational guidance and of courses that supposedly make for successful effort in business and in industry are getting a generous response from the public. All this is natural and within limits is commendable. If only the propagandists would keep hands off, if exploitation of the schools (and of the children) were barred by the rules of the game, if narrowness of vision regarding true and permanent values in education were not so manifest, there would be no occasion for solicitude regarding the future of humanistic studies. For exploitation, propaganda, the exaltation of the practical, going to the extreme, operate to throw the educational craft outside of its proper chartings. Steadying and guiding forces are needed, lest in educational thought and practise we get far adrift on untried seas.

Despite the influence of the radical modern school in education, whose advocacy of "the practical" is insistent and in whose scheme culture studies and the thought of a generous education for its own sake find little place, evidences are not lacking that there is yet a big conservative element among schoolmen and laymen whose educa-

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tional *credo* exalts the liberal rather than the eclectic, the broad rather than the narrow, the longer road rather than the short cut, for those who would like to do things worth while in life and who would like to get and to give the most and the best in their associations with their fellowmen. On no other ground can the persistence of distinctly humanistic studies and their large place in public esteem be accounted for. Among the studies that are the objects of popular favor in the schools, Latin still holds a foremost place. At any rate, this statement is true for the great majority of schools in New York State.

It is proposed in this paper to present a study of the facts regarding the present status of the various foreign languages in the secondary schools of the State of New York. In particular, it is desired to make clear the status of Latin and, if possible, to form some judgment as to the outlook for its permanency and its future position in the high school curriculum. The facts that will be made the basis of discussion and of forecast will be found in a series of five tabulations that have been prepared with great care and whose correctness may be relied upon. For the most part, the deductions based on the tables follow so directly and so naturally as to leave no room for conflicting interpretation.

TABLE I.

EXHIBIT OF TOTAL ENROLLMENTS IN THE VARIOUS FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN ALL SECONDARY REGENTS SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK STATE FOR A PERIOD OF FIVE YEARS

Year.	Total enrollment.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	Spanish.	German.
1914–15	174320	78565	2226	32722	5244	73189
1915–16	196824	81437	2364	34816	9460	66992
1916–17	191087	85770	2244	36788	17174	64135
1917–18	194659	75160	2235	38924	27420	36718
1918–19	197119	69370	2161	56591	32877	11306
Average for period of 5 years	190802	78060	2246	39968	18435	50468
Average % for period of 5 years	.....	40.9	1.2	20.9	9.1	26.4
% for 1918–19	.....	35.2	1.1	28.7	16.7	5.8

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In the foregoing table the term "total enrollment" means the whole number enrolled in all public high schools and in all academies constituting the University of the State of New York. All other figures will be readily understood. The following observations are suggested by the figures:

1. Great falling off in the number of students in German.
2. Noticeable increase in the number of students enrolled in French.
3. Marked increase in the number studying Spanish.
4. Persistence and stability of Greek thruout the entire five-year period.
5. The favorable showing for Latin.

In view of the intensity of interest in Spanish arising from its supposedly high utility value in meeting the needs of modern business in connection with South American trade, the increasing enrollment in that field is not surprizing. Equally intense during the years of the World War was the interest in French. Sentimental considerations arising from sympathy with France and from admiration for her steadfastness and her achievements in fighting the enemies of civilization doubtless exercised a strong influence in stimulating the study of the French language. In view of these handicaps the showing for Latin is remarkable. The loss of a few points in the last year as compared with the average for the five-year period need not prove disquieting to the friends of Latin. The figures presented, taken in connection with the exhibits in tables that will follow, afford a convincing argument for the vitality of Latin and a safe forecast of its security and future prominence as a factor in secondary education. The only possible disturbing element in the figures is found in the fact that there was a falling off in the total numbers enrolled in the foreign language classes in 1918–19 as compared with the average for the five-year period. This falling off amounted to 16,862 students, indicating a decrease of 8.8%. In this percentage a tendency to a decrease in all foreign language study may be indicated. If that is true, it suggests that all friends of linguistic

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studies, ancient and modern, English included, should stand together to defend and to fortify each other's field of instruction. They should stand thus together in any event, for their interests, personal and educational, are akin. The propagandist who in his ardent advocacy of Spanish rails at Latin is only menacing the structure that his hands would rear. In the end the foreign languages will stand or fall together. In truth it may be said more broadly that all friends of liberal studies should stand together. For it must be understood that no loss or injury can come to one great group of such studies that will not be reflected in the weakening of the whole humanistic educational fabric.

An interesting and suggestive exhibit is found in the table that follows. The figures for this tabulation were all obtained at first hand, directly from teachers and principals in actual visitation of schools during the year 1919–20. The writer is accordingly able to vouch for their correctness. The list of schools in each group is fairly typical of its class, and is sufficiently large to warrant generalization, exclusive of the three largest up-state cities, and of Greater New York. An exhibit of this kind is necessitated because the complete figures for the state will not be available for a number of months. There is no likelihood however, that the complete figures, when obtainable, will show in any group a variation of more than one per cent (probably less) from those indicated by the summary at the end of the table.

For the information of many who are familiar with the towns and cities of New York state, the following lists of schools represented in the tabulation are presented:

GROUP I

High schools at the following places:

Caledonia	De Ruyter	Marathon
Chautauqua	Earlville	Marcellus
Churchville	Elmira Heights	Mohawk
Clifton Springs	Greigsville	New York Mills
Coxsackie	Honeoye Falls	Oriskany

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Phelps	Sherrill	Whitesboro
Pittsford	Spencerport	Whitney Point
Ravena	Tully	Wyoming
Red Hook	West Carthage	Victor
Rhinebeck	Westmoreland	

GROUP II

High schools at the following places:

Avon	Most Holy Rosary (Syracuse) Acad.
Camden	New Hartford
Canastota	Owego
Catskill	St. Mary's (Dunkirk) Acad.
Clinton	Saugerties
Clyde	Seneca Falls
Falconer	Skaneateles
Johnson City	Waverly
Le Roy	Waterloo
Medina	

GROUP III

High schools at the following places:

Albion	Kingston
Amsterdam	Lockport
Cortland	Mt. Vernon
Elmira	Olean
Freeport	Rockville Center
Hempstead	Salamanca
Hudson	Union-Endicott
Ilion	Utica
Jamestown	White Plains

The figures shown in the following tables afford an adequate basis for a close estimate of the present numerical status of the various foreign languages in all territory of the state outside of Greater New York and the three large up-state cities—Buffalo, Rochester and Syracuse. These cities, by reason of the large foreign element in their population, and because of the urgent call of commerce and of industry in their midst, constitute a class by themselves. The groups in Table II include small, middle-sized and large villages, with a typical list of second and third class cities. In the last group it will be noted that the important cities of Utica, Elmira, Jamestown and Lockport are included.

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TABLE II

EXHIBIT REGARDING THE NUMERICAL STATUS OF THE VARIOUS FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THREE SELECTED GROUPS OF TYPICAL HIGH SCHOOLS FOR THE YEAR 1919–20

Type.	Total enrollment.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	Spanish.	German.
I. 29 schools having enrollment of less than 100 students each	1879	1299	....	652	52	13
II. 19 schools having enrollment of 100 to 200 students each	2725	1584	....	896	247	.....
III. 18 schools having enrollment of 200 to 1400 students each	9731	4538	....	2971	987	39
Total	14335	7421	....	4519	1286	52
SUMMARY-PERCENTAGES						
I. Enrollment less than 100	.....	69.2	....	34.7	2.8	0.7
II. Enrollment 100 to 200	.....	58.1	....	32.9	9.1	.....
III. Enrollment 200 to 1400	.....	46.6	....	30.5	10.1	0.4
Composite	.....	51.7	....	31.5	9.0	0.0036

The following observations are suggested by an examination of the summary under this table:

1. In the schools of Type I, the enrollment in Latin is twice that of the enrollment in French.

2. The comparison made in the foregoing item holds substantially in the schools of Type II.

3. Naturally, the relative percentage for Latin is somewhat lower in schools of Type III, but it still holds preponderance over French by a big margin.

4. The composite showing for Latin in schools of the three types is remarkably high, whether considered by itself or in its relation to the showing in other foreign languages.

5. French makes a consistently favorable showing thruout the groups.

6. In the second and third groups, Spanish holds essentially the status that might be expected for it in schools in which undue influence is not exerted in its behalf.

Two additional facts favorable to Latin must be mentioned in connection with this exhibit:

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First, the tabulation contains no showing of the large number of students in the school enrollment who have studied Latin in the progress of their courses but were not enrolled in Latin classes at the time the statistics were taken.

Second, only two of the private academies are included in the lists covered by the tables. In view of the fact that Latin is in great favor in the academies and that the enrollment in such classes is correspondingly heavy, the figures for schools of that type, if included, would raise appreciably the percentages indicated for Latin. The same remark is applicable to the effect on percentages that would result from including in the count all pupils in these schools who at some time in their courses have been enrolled in Latin classes.

To make complete the typical exhibits for all up-state schools, the subjoined table is presented:

TABLE III

THE THREE LARGEST CITIES OUTSIDE OF GREATER NEW YORK, 1919–20

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	Spanish.	German.
BUFFALO:						
Hutchinson-Central	2013	662	.....	311	88	118
Lafayette	1445	782	6	617	135	85
Masten Park	1356	445	16	361	67	195
South Park	802	647	16	76	64	23
Technical	1303	...	...	270	71	141
Total	6919	2536	38	1635	425	562
ROCHESTER:						
East High	1777	833	30	710	124	87
West High	1689	1048	43	492	108	25
Total	3466	1881	73	1202	232	112
SYRACUSE:						
Blodgett Vocational	1301	....	.....	254	...	...
Central	1417	969	.....	773	47	48
North High	564	264	.....	282	...	7
Total	3282	1233	.....	1309	47	55

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COMPOSITE—BUFFALO, ROCHESTER AND SYRACUSE, 1919–20

	English.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	Spanish.	German.
Buffalo	6919	2536	38	1635	425	562
Rochester	3466	1881	73	1202	232	112
Syracuse	3282	1233	.....	1309	47	55
Total	13667	5650	111	4146	704	729
Per cent	.....	41.3	0.008	30.4	5.2	5.3

Remarks:

1. In this exhibit English is made the basis of determining the total enrollment. Since essentially all pupils in the secondary schools of New York state are enrolled in the English classes, the figures are substantially exact.

2. The list of high schools is complete for each city.

3. Two large vocational high schools in which no Latin is offered are included in the exhibit.

4. In these cities there is a considerable number of large Catholic academies and other private secondary schools in which the enrollments in Latin are exceptionally large. If these were included in the figures, the showing for Latin would be still more favorable.

5. The composite exhibit is particularly favorable for Latin. Its percentage is higher than the State average for the 5-year period shown in Table I.

6. French shows normal strength.

7. Spanish is a poor third, competing closely with German for the lowest place on the list.

A complete exhibit based on the exhibits in Tables II and III gives an average percentage for Latin for all schools, large and small, outside of Greater New York of 46.7%; for French, 30.9%; for Spanish, 7.1%.

An analysis of the figures in the foregoing tables makes clear the fact that the recent decrease in the number of students enrolled in Latin in the State of New York is not to be ascribed in any degree to losses in the State as a whole outside of Greater New York. The conclusion is therefore warranted that the loss must be due to a distinct falling off in recent years in the number of students pursuing Latin in New York City. Even there Latin

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has held well in certain schools. Such a group of schools is represented in the table that follows. The list includes two exclusively boys' schools, two exclusively girls' schools, and two mixed schools. Three of these schools are in Brooklyn and three in Manhattan and the Bronx.

TABLE IV

SIX REPRESENTATIVE HIGH SCHOOLS IN GREATER NEW YORK, 1919–20

Name of school.	H. S. enrollment.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	Spanish.	German.
	(English)					
Boys' High	3799	1934	.....	1143	1540	56
DeWitt Clinton	4674	1319	.....	2059	1618	.....
Erasmus Hall	4051	1797	49	1546	1347	26
	(English)					
Girls' High	2152	970	.....	875	666	.....
Morris	3616	930	.....	1650	1213	.....
Wadleigh	2932	1102	59	1761	488	.....
Total	21224	8052	108	9034	6872	82
Per cent		37.9	0.005	42.5	32.4	0.004

While French and Spanish show noticeably high percentages, it will be observed that Latin is holding well in these schools. The per cent of pupils enrolled in Latin during the past school year was only slightly below the average for the state during the 5-year period represented in Table I.

These figures taken by themselves might warrant optimistic views as to the outlook for Latin in New York City. But the following table tells another story:

TABLE V

ALL HIGH SCHOOLS OF GREATER NEW YORK AS OF MARCH 1920

	H. S. enrollment.	Latin.	Greek.	French.	Spanish.	German.
Total	68981	14845	172	20336	28801	532
Per cent	.....	21.5	0.0025	29.5	41.8	0.0077

The figures in this table are so significant as to require little interpretation. The public high schools of New York City with an enrollment totaling approximately one-third of the entire secondary school enrollment of the state show a relative percentage of students enrolled in Latin of less than one-half of the indicated percentage

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for the state outside. It appears from the figures that Latin has held its own consistently in this state in recent years. If it were not for heavy losses in the Great City, the figures would doubtless show increases from year to year commensurate with the growth in secondary school enrollment. Even with this handicap, the exhibits warrant the belief that the figures for the past year, when complete, will show an upward swing in the percentage for Latin, and that this percentage will show good gains within the next few years. For it appears pretty certain that Spanish has reached its crest and that the next two or three years will witness a marked falling off in the number pursuing it in the high schools of New York City. However that may be, it is clear that the abnormal increase in the number taking Spanish is largely responsible for the losses in Latin. Stimulated by propaganda and fostered by exaggerated notions regarding its utility for business purposes, Spanish has certainly traveled fast and far in Greater New York within the past three years.

One can understand how in the unwholesome ambitions and rivalries of a big city, amid its moil and toil, its seething commercial activities and its urgent industrial demands, the conception of true values in education falls out of perspective, and how the immediate and less worthy motives in school life gain a footing beyond their deserts. It is not so much what a given study may do for a boy in putting him afield in his preparation for the job as what he thinks it will do for him that will influence his decision in taking up that study. This remark is peculiarly pertinent to the Spanish situation in New York. The boys have seen visions and dreamed dreams of wonderful opportunities to be grasped by those who know Spanish—opportunities to represent business houses in South America, where one only needs to know how to read, write, and speak Spanish to possess the open sesame to preferment and to fortune. "Read, write, and speak Spanish"—there's the rub. A college professor, gifted in epigram, says that, "if the boy has the Spanish, he can not get the job, and if he gets the job, he

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will not have the Spanish." Probably not one in a hundred of all who are now studying Spanish in New York City will ever utilize for the purposes of business the little knowledge that he acquires. For the college professor is right, the jobs will be few and those who get them will need to know Spanish thoroly in its technical as well as in its general aspects. He will not acquire such knowledge in a year or two of desultory study in a high school. And so it seems likely that in the reaction that has already begun, Spanish will lose ground rapidly. From such a reaction Latin will be the gainer.

It would hardly be profitable to speculate as to whether the encouraging situation indicated by these investigations mark permanent tendencies, or whether changes may be anticipated that will show Latin in a less favorable light. It is enough to say that Latin is now "going strong" in this state and that there is nothing in the present signs of the times to occasion apprehension for its future position in our schools.

It is a matter for regret that the investigations described in this paper are of necessity limited in their scope to the state of New York. Unfortunately, data indicating the status of foreign language studies in general thruout the Union are not available. Hence such studies can only be made by states and at close range. The figures utilized as a basis of judgment should be fairly complete to date and absolutely dependable. For these reasons the investigator is cut off from what should be his best sources of information, namely state and national educational reports. For whatever may be said about the trustworthiness of such reports, the long delays in their forthcoming put them in the category of things out-of-date and so of things, "flat, stale and unprofitable." Accordingly, one who wishes to make any investigations as to educational trends in the various fields of study must limit his studies to a circumscribed area from which he may obtain data by correspondence and by questionnaire. It is to be hoped that studies similar to these presented

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in this paper may be undertaken by the friends of Latin in other states. Dependable information from two or three typical states in New England, in the South, in the Near West, in the Mississippi Valley, in the Rocky Mountain region and on the Pacific Coast, on the basis of which composite exhibits might be prepared, would be worth far more than any amount of opinion, of assertion or of impressions arising from the talk heard in gatherings of teachers. Not infrequently one sees in the Classical Journal the statement that Latin is holding well in this state or that. But in the absence of reinforcement by trustworthy and adequate statistics such statements are unconvincing.

There is one field of investigation affecting the outlook for Latin that has not been explored—at least not in recent years. It relates to the outlook for Latin in the colleges. It would be interesting and informing to know in a broad and fairly complete way, by sections of the country, similar to those suggested in the foregoing paragraph:

(1) What proportion of the colleges are requiring three years or more of Latin for admission to their liberal arts courses.

(2) How many of them are requiring no Latin in college for the B. A. degree.

(3) How many of them require only one year of Latin in college for the B. A. degree.

(4) How many students in these groups of colleges are majoring in Latin, and

(5) How many of the latter group are pursuing Latin extensively with the thought of teaching it.

Beyond doubt, the future of Latin in our schools lies largely in the hands of the colleges. To them we must look for a supply of well-equipped teachers to fill the places of those who are passing. Whatever may be said about the limitations in scholarship and in technique that characterize the present force of teachers of Latin in the United States, there is grave danger that the body of teachers of

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the next generation who take charge of the classes in Latin will be far more meagerly prepared for their duties than those of the present. And when that time comes, if it does come, Latin will cease to hold anything more than an obscure place in our high schools. From this point of view it is the plain duty of the colleges to seek out and to direct their students who are linguistically gifted, toward the pursuit of Latin, and under inspiring and scholarly leadership to prepare them for teaching it. An intensive campaign is now on to influence young people to undertake teaching as a vocation. Equally important appears the need of a campaign to assure a correct balance in the number of teachers provided for the various fields. Of particular importance is it that attention should be directed to humanistic studies as affording inviting fields for teachers. There will be teachers of commerce, of household arts and of other vocational activities aplenty. In magnifying the practical, let us not neglect the things that make for spiritual uplift and for those elements of culture in education that are the saving forces in our civilization.

S. Dwight Arms

University of the State of New York,
Albany

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VII

DISCUSSIONS

FURTHER DISCUSSION OF THE SMITH-TOWNER BILL[1]

I. WHY THE SMITH-TOWNER BILL SHOULD NOT BECOME A LAW

Before undertaking an analysis of the arguments presented by Dr. Strayer and Mr. Magill as to why the Smith-Towner Bill should become a law, it is well to recognize that there is no dissension between the proponents of the bill and the opponents concerning the fundamental purposes to be attained. All are agreed that it is essential to develop an organization that shall serve as a means of coordinating the educational activities of the federal government, and of guiding the school system of the country to fuller efficiency. All are agreed that education should be given a more dignified status and more liberal financial support. No one questions that equality of opportunity for education must be provided if it is in any way possible to do this.

Since there is thus such general agreement on the purposes, why this discussion? The reason is that a constantly increasing number of thoughtful educators see in the Smith-Towner Bill certain grave faults which they believe will in the long run operate to hamper education rather than to benefit it, and which will tend to develop it in a direction out of harmony with fundamental instincts of the American spirit. This discussion of these two articles is then taken up from the point of view of one who believes thoroly in the fundamental purposes of the proposed Federal Department of Education and who is eager to see those purposes attained in a manner that will foster the development of a truly productive system of American education.

[1] See the symposium by Professor Strayer, Drs. Capen and Mann, and Mr. Magill in the November number of the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

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Both the articles under review mention in the first paragraph two provisions of the bill which they deem essential to its successful operation; namely, the establishment of a Department of Education and the appropriation of $100,000,000 to encourage states in promoting education in certain lines. Thruout the articles these two provisions are not held distinct, but are interwoven and intermingled as if they were interdependent elements of a federal educational center. It will assist clear thinking on this subject if we consider them at first separately, and then in combination.

The first important purpose of a new Department of Education, according to Dr. Strayer, is to consolidate the numerous bureaus and administrative agencies of the government which are now concerned with promoting education on a national scale in order that duplication and overlapping may be avoided and efficiency achieved. That this should be a main function of a Department of Education, all will agree. But when we turn to the provisions of the bill, we find that the only federal agency transferred to the Department of Education is the Bureau of Education, and that the President is authorized in his discretion to transfer such other offices, bureaus, departments, boards or branches of the government as in his judgment should be controlled by a Department of Education.

From this it appears that the statute provides not for the consolidation of the numerous federal agencies of education, but merely for an expansion of the present Bureau of Education into a department, with the possibility of including in it some of the other forty-odd educational agencies of the federal government if the President should concur therein. Dr. Strayer recognizes the difficulty in securing the Presidential and other necessary concurrences in this transfer when he points out that one of the most important functions of the Secretary of the Department of Education during his first year in office, would be the study of this problem of consolidation. His

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estimate of one year in which to accomplish this transformation without distinct statutory specification concerning it is a modest estimate. Those who understand the tenacity with which bureaus, boards and offices in Washington cling to what they consider to be their vested rights will grant the new Secretary five or ten years to accomplish this first most important function. During the war the procedure set forth in the bill might have been successful. But peace is now in sight and the war powers of the President will soon lapse. Congress is moving rapidly toward a budget system and a reorganization of government departments in the interest of economy. The status of education as a federal function is sure to be defined, not by a leap in the dark, with reliance on special powers delegated to the President, but by statute, after a careful and adequate study of the situation.

Mr. Magill's discussion of the organization of the proposed department presents the history of the Department of Agriculture as a fruitful precedent. It is pointed out how the Department of Agriculture, established in 1862, has gradually made good with the farmers by its excellent research work and the valuable information which it disseminated broadcast under able leadership. He shows how in the 58 years since its establishment, the appropriations for the department have gradually increased to $30,000,000 per year, and indicates what a vital factor it now is in the development of agricultural production.

This development of the Department of Agriculture is a hopeful precedent for education. If the proposed Department of Education were to follow the precedent, it would devote itself primarily to investigation, to gathering reliable information and to the definition of national objectives and standards of education for the inspiration of local communities, leaving it to the local communities to achieve their own solutions. After 58 years of creative and efficient work along these lines, the Department might well look forward to an appropriation of $30,000,000 for its support, the money being granted because services

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actually rendered were recognized by the nation as worth that sum. That it was the intention to start the new Department of Education in a modest way and gradually win public recognition by useful service is further evidenced by the fact that the appropriation for current expenses of the Department is only $500,000. This is twice the amount of the money now appropriated to the Bureau of Education. The jump from $200,000 now available for the work of the Bureau of Education to an appropriation of $100,000,000 is therefore, not, as Dr. Strayer claims, the real measure of the relative importance of the Bureau of Education and the National Department in the minds of those responsible for drafting the bill. The $100,000,000 is for purposes wholly extraneous to the legitimate functions of the new department. The true ratio of the relative value of the two is two to five. The hundred million measures rather the wistful wishing of the proponents of the bill.

The analysis thus far indicates, therefore, that the first provision of the Smith-Towner Bill, defining the organization and functions of the Department of Education, is faulty because the instrument provided is too weak to enable it to carry on efficiently the necessary functions. It is weak not only because of lack of adequate financial support for the proper work of the Department, but also because of the failure to specify what educational agencies besides the Bureau of Education shall be absorbed into it. This weakness is particularly striking in the case of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The proposal for independent control of vocational education in state educational systems has been definitely rejected by several important states. The separation in the federal government of the national agencies for education and vocational training would, therefore, be confusing, to say the least. The proper relations of these two organizations should be defined in the statute and not left for settlement by the President by the use of specially delegated powers.

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Mr. Magill's analogy with the Department of Agriculture ends with the implication that a Department of Education, functioning as a research and information service, could from modest beginnings achieve a success thru public service comparable to that attained in agriculture. He does not point out that the second main provision of the Smith-Towner Bill imposes on the proposed Department of Education a condition which completely destroys the possibility of a valid analogy between the two. I refer to the proposed appropriation of $100,000,000 to be distributed among the states for the purpose of equalizing educational opportunity. Fortunately, the Department of Agriculture never had the responsibility of administering any such fund, so that it was never tempted to forsake its legitimate tasks of investigation and report. Such relatively modest sums as have recently been granted it under the Smith-Lever Act for distribution among the states on the 50–50 principle were received after it had won recognition by merit and so did not have a chance to buy its way to popular esteem. Had the Department of Agriculture been loaded with any such incubus at the beginning, its chances of success would have been seriously handicapped.

The justification urged by Dr. Strayer and other proponents of this feature of the Smith-Towner Bill is that the distribution of wealth and hence of taxation for the support of schools in the different parts of the country are so unequal that something must be done to make possible more nearly equal per-capita expenditures for schools in order that all children may be assured equal opportunity for training. Aspersions are cast upon those who are so foolish as to oppose this $100,000,000 appropriation by branding them as enemies of education and perverters of the Constitution because they do not fight to secure equal opportunity for all by the methods advocated in this bill. This position is superficially fetching because the federal government is popularly thought of as an inexhaustible mine of money, and hence those who oppose

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the appeals for $100,000,000 of federal gold to spend on this particular plan for securing equal educational opportunity for all, certainly appear to be obstructing progress. But when one realizes that federal funds come ultimately from the people and that high federal taxes are a very potent cause for the high cost of living, he can not fail to question whether enough is thus gained by way of equalizing school opportunities for all children to justify the proposed procedure.

The method proposed is probably the quickest and easiest method of getting ready money with which to equalize partially the per-capita expenditure for schooling. But is it a wise policy to make this distribution of money in the face of the notorious tax systems in many of the states? The problem of cost and financing of education is one of the most important problems which a properly constituted Department of Education could undertake to solve. If by this hasty expedient for securing ready cash we secure temporary relief, do we not merely camouflage and cover up real conditions of school support and taxation which loudly cry for investigation? Would not the passage of the bill, therefore, delay the much needed study of this subject and ultimately injure the speedy establishment of the school system on a firm foundation of public support? Next year the schools may not be so well off if the bill is defeated, but ten years from now, as a result of the competent studies that could be made by an adequately equipped Department of Education, the ultimate strength of the school system would be vastly improved.

Neither of the papers under review recognizes the fact that educational opportunity and per-capita expenditure for schooling are not synonymous terms. The per-capita cost of engineering instruction in first-class engineering colleges ranges all the way from $200 to $2500 per year. Differences of individual temperament and ability of students and differences of teaching methods are so great that in many cases the $200 course offers a better educa-

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tional opportunity than does the $2500 course. Local conditions determine educational opportunity quite as much as does cash. A strong Department of Education could contribute even more to equalizing opportunities for education by constructive suggestion than by distributing money. For experience has repeatedly demonstrated in this country that communities are ready to support schools adequately, provided they have tangible evidence that the schooling given is really worth what it costs. The creation of a social sanction for more vital types of school work by actually doing more vital work in schools would ultimately do far more to secure the money needed to raise teachers' salaries, eradicate illiteracy and effectively achieve the purposes we all desire.

Again, while Dr. Strayer generously allows the proposed new Secretary a whole year in which to study the organization of his department so that he may be able to spend his $500,000 appropriation wisely in Washington, none of the proponents of the bill admit that any time is required to study the wise expenditure of the $100,000,000 over the whole country. By the terms of the bill this vast sum is to be available for immediate delivery. Doubtless those interested in the bill would try to justify this situation by the fact that the specifications in the bill as to how each disbursement is to be made are sufficiently definite to guarantee that the money will be spent to the satisfaction of the taxpayers. If so, and if local school authorities are to be really free to control and define their own policies of education as well as to "organize, supervise and administer" the school work encouraged by the provisions of this act, why encumber the Department of Education with the administration of the fund? The Treasury Department is far better equipped for a job of this sort.

In defense of this immediate appropriation Dr. Strayer urges the present critical condition of the schools and the soundness of putting the wealth of the nation back of the education of all its children. No one will minimize

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the first or question the latter. As a means of accomplishing the desired results, Dr. Strayer argues that because the federal government has recently taken from the states their most fruitful sources of revenue while leaving them the most expensive functions of government, therefore the nation should participate in providing the funds necessary for developing the public school system. Regarded as an isolated case, this sounds plausible enough; but when the proposed method of doing this is scrutinized as a precedent for federal policy, the following facts must also be considered. All taxes come eventually from the people either directly or in the form of higher prices. There is a limit to the total amount of money that can be raised by taxes. The extension of the fifty-fifty principle of federal subsidies places in the hands of the federal government the specification of the purposes for which an ever larger and larger portion of the total available tax funds shall be expended, in spite of any statements in statutes reserving the "organization, supervision and administration" of the activities concerned to the several states. The states thus have an ever diminishing voice in determining for what purposes the taxes paid by their citizens shall be spent.

The fifty-fifty principle has already been applied to vocational education, to agricultural training, and to highways. The sum involved is already over one hundred million dollars annually appropriated by the government, and a like amount granted by the states. This two hundred million dollars must be devoted to purposes specified by the federal statutes, thereby reducing by over two hundred millions the sum available for purposes designated by the states. Obviously, if this process were extended without hindrance, half of the total available tax receipts would ultimately be paid first to the federal government and then returned to the states, minus overhead charges and with complete specifications as to how not only this money, but also the remaining half which must be used to match it, must be expended. State governments as

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well as education would then actually be subject to control from Washington, even tho the statutes explicitly reserved to the states the right to "organize, supervise and administer" their own affairs.

Schoolmen, when pressed on this point, have finally justified the fifty-fifty principle on the ground that it supplies the "easiest" method of getting money. But is it a sound policy for the sake of easy money to encourage the states to pass half their taxes thru a federal office, thereby subjecting them to a high overhead charge for placing on them restrictions as to the purposes for which the money shall be expended? Does this paternalistic process of supplying ready cash tend to release creative energy in the people, and to develop a virile and upstanding manhood capable of local self-government and worthy to enjoy the freedom for which this country stands?

The bill thus certainly fails to make clear that the sovereign rights of the states in the matter of education are properly protected by its provisions. For this reason the bill has by some been declared unconstitutional. This point is, however, of relatively little importance, compared with the more vital question as to whether the bill creates an organization so attuned to American instincts and traditions that it can release the pent-up energies of the people and direct these energies toward the creation of a productive type of education adapted to the pioneer spirit of America. It is because the bill and the supporting arguments seem hopelessly weak on this point that I take issue with its defenders. I shall, therefore, close this review by pointing out what seems to me to be the fundamental fallacy of this bill and by making a suggestion as to how the end desired by all may be achieved quickly and sanely but without large federal subsidies.

Dr. Strayer indicates that he senses this fundamental fallacy when he points out that the functions of the various departments of our national government are not identical. He mistakes, however, the distinction between the two types of department when he states that the departments

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of State, War, Navy, Post Office, Treasury and Justice exercise functions which are wholly those of the national government, while the department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor are agencies for promotion of public welfare thru investigation and report. That he also fails to understand the implications of the distinction is indicated when he states that the Department of Education should be constructed on the type of Commerce, Labor, and Agriculture, and yet should be required to act as an agency in the distribution of federal money for the encouragement of education in the several states.

The true distinction which Dr. Strayer appears to miss is that the departments of State, War, Navy, Post Office, Treasury, and Justice are executive departments charged with the responsibility of administering functions reserved to the federal government by the Constitution. On this account they have large governmental activities to administer and they are necessarily organized accordingly. On the other hand, the departments of Commerce, Labor, Agriculture, and the proposed Department of Education are created for the purpose of making scientific studies in their respective fields, of supplying reliable information, and of pointing out directions of progress which make for national strength. They should have no responsibility for administering Agriculture, Commerce, Labor, or Education. They should constitute a national news service in their respective fields, and their chief duty should be to keep the public reliably informed on every modern advance and on every phase of the activities in which they are interested.

If this essential distinction between an administrative department and one that is devoted to scientific investigation and the dissemination of valid information were recognized in practise, the returns received by the people from the government activities in these lines would be enormously increased. As pointed out above, the Department of Agriculture has rendered priceless service in the field of investigation and information. When it tries

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to administer agricultural interests, it is outside of its proper domain and flounders. Applied to the Department of Education, this means that its true sphere is that of investigation, information, and report. When it undertakes to administer and supervise the expenditure of large sums of money for the support of school work thruout the states it is outside of its proper sphere, and, therefore, doomed ultimately to fail.

The proponents of the measure attempt to answer these fundamental objections by pointing out that if we wait until the true distinction between the functions of the several departments is understood and exprest in a reorganization of the government in Washington, we will never get a department of education. Therefore, we had better get in with the rest while the getting is good and trust to having our true function and status settled later. This argument would have been more valid fifteen years ago than it is today. Congress is already committed to the creation of a budget system, and there is rapid progress toward the creation of a commission to recommend the reorganization and reclassification of the functions of governmental departments so as to avoid duplication of effort in the interest of economy. The expense of the federal government is now seven or eight times what it was before the war, and there is enormous pressure back of this movement to simplify and make efficient the government bureaus and departments.

There is every reason to believe, then, that this reorganization will be undertaken in the near future; and I for one prefer to work for the accomplishment of this larger end, which is sure to place education in its proper position of dignity and importance, rather than to push for a temporary makeshift, which is known in advance to be weak and fundamentally unsuited to the mission it should accomplish. I take this position more readily because, tho I realize the hardship involved in not having $100,000,000 or more to spend next year, I am fully convinced that ten years from now not only a department of education, but

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the cause of education in America, would be much further advanced by a less extravagant program of action. The older administrative departments of the government are necessarily designed to guarantee protection and conservation of rights and resources. The true function of the newer departments, on the other hand, is to foster production and the release of creative energy by scientific investigation and a scientific news service. Richer results will be achieved if we keep this distinction clearly in mind, so that when a Department of Education is established, it will not be hampered by politics or by illegitimate administrative work, but will be assured free play for its constructive energy and its creative imagination.

War Department
Washington, D. C.

Charles R. Mann

II. A REPLY TO THE ARGUMENTS AGAINST THE SMITH-TOWNER BILL

The chief arguments against the Smith-Towner Bill, as exprest in the articles appearing in the November Educational Review, may be summarized as follows:

1. The nation should not appropriate money for the purposes specified in the Smith-Towner Bill, nor should the method proposed be followed until after further investigation as to its validity.

2. A bill creating a national department of education should specify the bureaus, divisions, and independent administrative agencies concerned with education to be included in the national department. It is suggested that in order to promote the subsidy feature of the Bill the unification of governmental educational activities was sacrificed.

3. It is argued that consolidation of agencies later to be brought about, as provided by the Bill, involves the inconsistency of the Bill itself, which states that the schools aided by the provisions of this act "shall be organized, supervised, and administered exclusively by the legally

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constituted state and local educational authorities of said State," and the laws under which certain agencies already operate which provide for certain supervision by these agencies.

I shall answer these arguments in the order in which I have presented them.

1. One of the most fundamental principles of our democratic government is that which we commonly express by saying that there shall be an equalization of opportunity. The corollary of this principle is that there shall be an equalization of the burden to be borne by those who support our government whether national or local. We know that wealth among the several states varies to such a degree that one state is actually six times as able as another state to support education or any other governmental function. Logic compels us on this account to favor participation by the nation in the support of public education. No function of government is more important in a democracy than education. The safety and perpetuity of our government depends upon the education of all the people. If opportunities are to be equalized and burdens equally shared the wealth of the nation must be taxed for the support of education.

If some one will propose a better method of distributing money than that which has been suggested in the dollar for dollar appropriations; if there is some method which will at the same time recognize the obligation of the nation to support education and the obligation of the state to continue its support, or to increase the amount spent for education, I for one, would be glad to accept that better method. In the meantime, the passing of another measure embodying this method of cooperation between the nation and the states does not in any sense finally fix the method to be used.

2. Those responsible for drafting the Smith-Towner Bill hope to secure legislation which will stimulate education thruout the nation. They were controlled in the drafting and in the redrafting of the measure by the judgment of a

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great majority of the public school administrators of the country who were willing to give their time and thought to this question. I do not believe that there was ever in the minds of the Commission or of these administrators a desire for a subsidy from the national government which in any way interfered with their judgment with respect to the best method of bringing the national department of education into being. It was the deliberate judgment of this group that a department of the national government could be best developed after the appointment of the secretary of education. They did not feel so confident, as have been the critics of the measure, that they themselves or anyone else could sit down and even after careful investigation propose the reorganization of the national government which would prove most satisfactory.

The bill provides that "the president is authorized and empowered in his discretion to transfer to the department of education such offices, bureaus, divisions, boards or branches of the government, connected with or attached to any of the executive departments or organized independently of any department, as in his judgment should be controlled by, or the functions of which should be exercised by, the department of education." This is precisely the method which is operative wherever good administrative procedure is practised. The president together with the heads of other executive departments in conference with the secretary of the department of education are the only ones competent to determine the organization of a department of education. It is only as the function of any bureau, board or branch of government is considered, not only as it has to do with education but also as it is related to other governmental agencies, that a transfer should be effected.

3. It was the deliberate judgment of those who participated in the final drafting of the bill, and in the light of the consultation with men and women responsible for administering public education thruout the nation, that the department of education should not supervise or control the schools aided by the provisions of the Bill.

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As a point of law it may not be entirely clear that other agencies transferred to the department of education would operate under the law creating the department. If there is any doubt concerning this matter there would be no difficulty in having the doubt resolved at the time of such transfer, or by an amendment to the Bill, providing that after such transfer, bureaus, boards, or divisions transferred shall operate under the limitations imposed by the act creating the department.

It must be remembered as well that Congress has the power to transfer offices, bureaus, divisions, or boards of the government to the department of education. If as is altogether likely the transfer were made in this manner, as is provided in the Bill, upon the recommendation of the president, it would be a very simple matter to provide for the consistency in operation of the department which all desire.

The constructive suggestions offered by the critics of the measure are as follows:

1. That a department of education and scientific research be established.

2. That the educational relationships between the United States and foreign countries could be satisfactorily promoted by a department of education and science.

3. That the most fruitful activity of the government's education office is investigation and that for that reason investigation be encouraged.

4. That an annual inventory of man power be undertaken in order that the results achieved by local communities be made a matter of public concern; such an inventory to serve as a powerful stimulus to all educational agencies to build up their own efficiency on their own initiative.

1. The Smith-Towner Bill is in entire accord with these recommendations. An initial appropriation of $500,000 in addition to the appropriations available for such governmental agencies that may be transferred to the department of education is provided for in the Bill. This would

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certainly make possible the beginnings of research or of the national inventory suggested. It must be emphasized that this half million dollars provided would be a sum made available in addition to the funds already provided in the several bureaus, divisions, or boards to be consolidated in the department of education.

2. The Bill provides that the secretary of education is authorized in the same manner as provided for appointments in other departments to make appointments or recommendations of appointments of educational attaches to foreign embassies.

3 and 4. Since the Smith-Towner Bill definitely guards against the control or adminstration of education from Washington, and since it is definitely provided in the Bill that "it shall be the duty of the department of education to conduct studies and investigations in the field of education and to report thereon," and further that "research shall be undertaken in (*a*) illiteracy, (*b*) immigrant education, (*c*) public-school education, and especially rural education, (*d*) physical education, including health education, recreation and sanitation, (*e*) preparation and supply of competent teachers for the public schools, and (*f*) in such other fields as, in the judgment of the secretary of education, may require attention and study," it will be seen that the Bill is in entire accord with the constructive recommendations made.

It would appear therefore that those who believe in the measure and those who are critical with respect to it have only one major difference. Those who advocate the Smith-Towner Bill believe that the nation has a responsibility which can be discharged only by national support of education. They recognize the fact that the nation has come into our states and into the localities within the state and has taken from them their most fruitful sources of revenue. They believe that in a democratic society educational opportunities should be equalized, and that the burden of taxation should be equally distributed. They are

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convinced that the principle of national support already recognized will be extended.

Teachers College
Columbia University

George D. Strayer

III. THE SMITH-TOWNER BILL AGAIN

After reading the various articles on the Smith-Towner Bill in the November issue of the Educational Review, I have been puzzled to understand how the Smith-Towner Bill, in just the form it has, is public education. I could see readily enough, and sympathize also with the statement, that the "bill rests on the assumption that public education is essential to national welfare," and that it is "important that education be represented in the councils of the nation." But it is beyond me, altho one-fourth of the first article in the November Review argues thus, how such views should compel anyone to favor this particular bill. Nor do I acknowledge that, if I oppose the bill, I am an enemy of public education. What, indeed, is meant by an enemy of public education? Is anyone who fails to see only good coming out of public education an enemy of the latter? If a person has educational ideals that he thinks wider than those actually achieved in the past by our public schools, is he therefore an enemy of public education?

It has long been time to ask, and there are enough prominent men who have asked themselves, what is wrong with our educational system. The various answers such men gave to their own questions agree quite well that there is something very tangible wrong with it. Just recently again, I came across two excellent articles dealing with the question, one in the November Scientific Monthly by Professor Webster, and the other in the Catholic Educational Review by Father Burns. It can hardly be denied that a certain attitude or atmosphere, perhaps best expresst in the phrase "intellectual ambition," is wanting to an alarming extent in those who attend or have attended our schools, and often in those who teach in our schools. Anyone who

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is wide awake and has himself received a real stimulus from his education will understand what is meant. The absence of this intellectual ambition is visible everywhere; *e. g.*, in the kind of books taken out of the libraries, in the kind of contemporary literature read, and especially in the amount of that kind devoured by the day and the week. The failure to produce this intellectual ambition to a more noticeable extent is an indictment that our educational systems can not escape—but it is an indictment that strikes all our systems alike, elementary and higher, public and private. This is for me the most adequate answer to the question: What is wrong with our schools? And therefore, among other possible reasons, I consider any proposed remedy of the educational situation, that does not aim to heal this vital malady, as "in so far forth" inadequate, misapplied, perhaps even worse than none.

Such I consider a chief reason why I am opposed to the bill in question. Before explaining it further, I shall mention another which might be called, in a mild way, philosophical. It refers to the general tendency underlying the proposal of the bill as a cure for existing evils. Defenders of the bill grow impatient whenever the bill is interpreted as another example of the increasing centralization of power in our federal government. Their protest against any desire of furthering such federal control over education is an indication of their own intentions, but it does not remove *ipso facto* the implicit consequences of the bill. No educator will deny that money is much more of a power in the country than it ought to be; and so the last word in deciding the disbursing of immense sums of money for educational purposes, especially since certain conditions are to go with the money, carries with it also an immense power. That follows from the *de facto* state of affairs with us, not from any human intentions. Just such a measure as the present one had been predicted as an instance of the growing tendency towards centralization; *e. g.*, in *Federal Power, Its Growth and Necessity*, by Henry Litchfield West. This phase of the bill has been pointed out sufficiently in various

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critical articles; also the possibility of much waste and abuse of moneys, and of inefficiency, where such large sums are handled from a central office. The fact that federal offices did such great work during the war can hardly be an argument against possible inefficiency. Much of the success of war-time work has been rightly attributed to the spirit and the stress of the needful moment. And there have been many gross abuses connected with the wholesale administration of sums of money, as we are finding out more day by day; not to speak of lesser inefficiencies, most of which may be condoned somewhat in the pressing time of war, but not in time of peace.

Defenders of the bill point to the splendid work that has undoubtedly been done by the Department of Agriculture. They rightly call attention to the fact that "it grew rapidly in public confidence because of the valuable research work that it conducted and the information that it gathered and disseminated." It surely did. And, therefore, it furnishes us with an excellent precedent for possible valuable service by any federal Educational Department. It points to the possibility of an equal service, if a federal department should in like manner cooperate more intensively with state research centers in the gathering of information and the exchanging of results. But, if the head of the Educational Department is to be a member of the Cabinet, we can hardly hope that educational work will escape the unsteady hand of politics, especially if the administration of large funds gives him real power. The war has furnished some examples of governmental interference in school affairs that do not redound to our credit.

Of greater significance still is the fact that there is no kind of a plan mentioned according to which the different government offices and bureaus now dealing with educational matters shall be ordered. Is it at all reasonable to expect that those matters should be thought of only after a Department has been created? As if companies of soldiers should have been made to plunge blindly into the enemy territory and only afterwards send up photographing

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airplanes and select their points of vantage and get their general bearings! But such seems to be the fashion today—to act first and ask questions afterward. Else how explain the present mania for legislating ourselves out of all human ills, when they finally stir us, without asking further questions about them? The line of least resistance is not necessarily the best one to follow. Precipitate action often forces issues to a breaking-point, instead of a point of adjustment. Surely it is a rational procedure to seek out causes of evils and then to look for remedies that are specific, before grasping at drastic measures. The latter should be a last resource, not a first. Of course, if the activity of a man is nothing but a mechanical response to his environment, as some psychologists say, then such a procedure is justifiable, then any good end might justify the means used to gain it. But even the theoretical determinist must in practise assume the presence in men of what James styled an "independent variable." As soon as we treat of human actions, we must take into account that we have not yet been able to calculate all man's springs of action as we have those of a mechanical device; and it remains still the soundest pedagogical procedure to try to draw out human activities from within. This leads me to my second and main objection to the Smith-Towner Bill. It does not reach the real sore-spot of our educational wound, and its method is furthermore not based on a sound educational principle.

We are in general so keenly aware of educational shortcomings in our country that we may be prompted to act without having duly taken cognizance of the nature of those shortcomings. We know that there is an astonishing number of illiterate native-born Americans; we know that there are foreign-born men and women in our country that are illiterate "in several languages;" again that there are others who are ignorant of our national language, but otherwise not illiterate. These are quite different aspects of our problem; and it is not enough for us to become aware of the fact that they exist, and exist threateningly. It is not

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enough for us to know *what* our defects are; we must know also their *how* and *why;* we must seek the causes of their existence before we can think of reasonable methods of curing them. Are our different ailments really cast after one mold? Were they all brought about by the lack of the means to provide educational opportunities? In other words, was in all these cases the spirit willing and the flesh unable because it lacked the wherewithal? It is probably true of the foreigner, when he first sets foot on this land, that he is eager to learn our language and customs; and that his greatest hindrance in attaining this desire is lack of opportunity and of the material means. But can the same be said of the illiterates who are native-born Americans? Is the cause of their deficiency an economical one? If so, we ought to have some indication of an ambitious spirit in them, struggling helplessly for educational facilities, and failing because of a lack of funds. Just here would be the occasion for a Department of Education to render most valuable service. The *how* and the *wherefore* of the *what* call for expert investigation. It is unreasonable to be satisfied with knowing what evils exist, and sponsoring haphazardly the next best remedy that happens to suit one's nature. It is the nature of the evil that calls for cure, and the cure must be specifically suited to the evil.

That the educational evil is not by nature merely economical, the defenders of the bill in question themselves seem to believe. "We have proceeded during the past one hundred and thirty years on the supposition that the individual neighborhoods would provide adequately for education" and we find now that we were mistaken. "Without the stimulus and leadership which the nation is well able to provide, we shall continue for another hundred years to temporize." Hence, "those responsible for drafting the bill have felt that the hundred million dollars appropriated to the states would encourage them to undertake systematically to meet the needs now apparent;" and hence "the federal government should encourage the states" in the promotion of education "by national recognition and

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financial aid." Such statements are directly in line with the opinion that a lack of appreciation of the true value of education is at least one of the reasons of our defection. The lack of intellectual ambition, an attitude of scorn, even, towards such a thing as education, is very prevalent in the land. It has, according to many utterances by prominent university professors and presidents invaded even the teaching bodies of higher institutions. And it is almost universally present in the families of the ordinary walks of life. One of the greatest causes for the educational deficiency is just this lack of good-will on the part of the people. Our problem is therefore one, first of all, of engendering a better spirit—a greater willingness, and a better appreciation of the things of the mind. Even such a matter as that of teachers' salaries would not leave a populace in guilty indifference, did the people appreciate the real need of the service that the teaching profession renders to the community. It is this attitude that must change before we can hope to attain satisfactory results with any educational schemes we may adopt. What, in a general way, will the encouragement of the government, the regulations of the states, the heroic patience and labor of the teachers, accomplish to any desired degree of success, if the parents themselves do not change their attitude towards education? The problem is fundamentally one of the spirit and not of the flesh. And it seems to me that a bill like the Smith-Towner ignores just this basic aspect of the problem. The problem must be attacked from within rather than from without; the appeal and encouragement of any steps for improvement will be successful in proportion to their reaching the inner man and there arousing a response developed from the best character motives that human nature possesses.

Will the appeal of a hundred million dollars arouse such motive? To what extent will an educational measure improve the spirit of the people by making them believe that they are getting two dollars for every one they spend? It seems to me that we ought to hesitate and reflect before

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using inducements that appeal to the stomach without having tried our utmost to reach the spirit. Before resorting to external methods, it should seem reasonable to try ways that take into account the higher nature of man. Or is man after all only the bifurcate vegetable exposed by Carlyle? If our educational delinquency is due partly to a default of the spirit, then our first efforts should try to arouse that spirit to a sense of its failings. If in different localities men have failed in their duty, then we have an alluring field for the expert investigation of a government bureau or department. Publish the fact of the case broadcast with the proper figures; appeal to the sense of shame and of honor in these people; awaken them to a sense of duty! After all such efforts have failed, then, for the sake of the rest of the country, proceed to means less flattering to the dignity of human nature.

But my difficulties are not yet ended. There are still many other points that puzzle me, together, perhaps with many of my co-religionists. I can not speak authoritatively for them, however, since there are as many types of mind among them as among any other large group of people. Thus an unsophisticated mind among them might ask itself: Where do we come in? Horrified protests from others, of course! But the question might only mean: Where do we stand outside this bill? Let me explain. So far, the Federal Bureau of Education has given private schools the benefits of its investigation and its information; it has in its investigations also taken cognizance of the existence of private school systems and has given out information regarding them. In other words, the Federal Bureau performed its work in a broad spirit; it did not ignore any minority group of American citizens. The Smith-Towner Bill is the foster-child of the National Education Association. The field of the latter is limited to "national education," and no one can carp at its ignoring private school systems. In fact, its scope was always a limited one, it had nothing to do with some groups of the country's citizens. Tho this spirit is unobjectionable in a private association, the same

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is not true of a federal department. The Smith-Towner Bill is co-extensive with the scope of that association; it does not broaden that scope to cover the field of the Bureau of Education; it rather narrows down the scope of the proposed Department of Education to that of the private association. It would put up as a federal attitude one that takes no cognizance at all of a large number of its citizens. The above unsophisticated mind, thus reflecting, might in its ignorance think that liberty consists in joining the majority or being frozen out like a substance in solution. It might also be old-fashioned enough to doubt the expedience of thus swerving from the broader views our forefathers bequeathed to us. The sophisticated Catholic, on the contrary, would probably better understand the narrowing view of any persons or groups that overlook him in their zeal to identify themselves with these United States. He is never at his wit's end for an explanation and might recall a passage that appeared in a former number of the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW over the name of its distinguished founder: "We ought now to be spared at least for a time, the vexing spectacle of men in places of authority in education and letters who spend their time standing in front of the convex mirror of egotism thinking that what they see reflected in it is a real world and their own exact relation to it."

Both the sophisticated and the unsophisticated Catholic mind believe in a life here and a life hereafter, belief in the latter being inseparable from their religion. For both of them religion is not something that they can for safe-keeping sew into the lining of their Sunday coats; it pervades also their everyday actions and views regarding this life, and is therefore an essential element in their general educational ideals. For them the public schools fall short of ideals not so much in what they do as in what they omit to do. Hence these minds exercise the right of freedom in providing more adequately for the attainment of their higher ideals. It is hard for them to see why the "democratic idea of equal opportunity" should not embrace also

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an equal opportunity to choose the means for attaining these ideals without being considered unnational, since they know these ideals to be in fullest harmony with the democratic traditions handed down by the founders of the nation. In interpreting the narrower viewpoint with which they are so often confronted, however, the sophisticated and the unsophisticated mind will differ. The latter may be prone to impugn the good faith and the intentions of those who extol the narrow view; while the former will recall that such a viewpoint was with great success legally injected into English thought as far back as the time of Good Queen Bess and has been an appanage of English thought ever since.

Again, the unsophisticated mind may think of the pocketbook, and fail to comprehend why liberty gives him the choice either of exercising freedom of conscience and paying double for doing so, or of giving up both of these at the same time. Here the sophisticated mind will again understand better. His reading will have brought him across this passage from a recent number of the Outlook, or across some similar passage elsewhere: "The real danger of parochial schools, whether Protestant or Catholic, is that they tend to develop in their patrons a desire to be relieved of their school taxes. This tendency should be combated frankly wherever it shows itself. For the public school system, the greatest of all American institutions and the unique contribution that the American people have made to the history of democracy, will be greatly weakened, perhaps even destroyed, if the schools' moneys are divided, diverted or paid over to private teachers and boards of management." The sophisticated one will perhaps even feel a just pride at the thought that the country does need him after all, and that he, too, deserves full credit for all that the public schools have accomplished.

And now just one more of the bewildering thoughts that strike the Catholic mind, sophisticated and unsophisticated alike; this time, one that really calls for an explanation. The Smith-Towner Bill is declared as defensible both from the general standpoint, without reference to the present emer-

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gency, and from the standpoint of the present emergency. Now, in the defense of the bill these two very different viewpoints are constantly interfused, so that the bill might seem bent on perpetuating means that suit only a present emergency, if they suit at all. In general there is lacking a grasp of the real issues at stake, and the air of a deliberate scientific study of the situations to be remedied. In other words, the whole affair sometimes conveys the impression, not of a studied attempt to meet the different aspects of an emergency and a need, but rather of an attempt to use the opportunity presented by an emergency. The bill has been frequently referred to by avowed anti-Catholics as the opportunity of a lifetime, and in such clear and unmistakable terms that the promoters of the bill can not overlook the statements. Defenders of the bill point to the different associations, clubs, etc., that indorse the measure. Are these defenders possibly not aware that some of the clubs and lodges point to the bill as precisely the means of wiping out Catholic parochial schools? Again, that political candidates, especially in the South, swim into offices on the issue of anti-Catholicism, and that the bill is considered a weapon towards that end? Such facts in no way impugn the good faith of the drafters of the bill, but nevertheless impose a duty upon them. Since the bill has been held up as the ideal weapon for aims that are manifestly contrary to our dearest ideals of liberty and freedom in this country, a denunciation of such an interpretation is called for. Silence under the circumstances can justly be considered eloquent.

VIRGIL G. MICHEL

ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY
COLLEGEVILLE, MINNESOTA

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VIII

REVIEWS

Teacher training departments in Minnesota high schools. By LOTUS D. COFFMAN. General Education Board. New York. 1920.

A number of states, most of them in the Middle West, have made provision for teacher training of secondary-school grade. The question has often been raised as to whether these departments or schools should be established or, having been established, should be continued. With the present serious dearth of teachers for rural schools, there could hardly fail to be some tendency to recanvass their availability as sources of supply of teachers with some training for work in one-room rural schools.

Into this situation the report of a study of the normal training departments in the State High Schools of Minnesota by President Coffman comes with much pertinence, especially as it concerns what may be regarded as one of the most effective of high school teacher-training plans being administered, and one which has been among the most generously fostered.

The report opens with a history of the movement in Minnesota from the time when the training was one merely of "reviews" in the common branches up to and including the plans for 1918–1919. The seven succeeding chapters deal with the following aspects of the problem, each chapter presenting facts and some evaluation of the situation; the teachers of the training departments, the students, the curriculum, the instruction, the administration, finances, and the opinions of city and county superintendents as to the effectiveness and justifiability of the plan. Most of the teachers in charge of these departments have had contact with rural life and rural schools before entering upon the work, "average ten years older than the typical American teacher," and are experienced. They are pre-

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dominantly graduates of normal schools, whereas other high school teachers in Minnesota are predominantly college graduates. Their professional interest is marked. Without exception they are women. Their salaries compare favorably with those of other high school teachers. The tenure of office is not as long as is desirable. The students in the departments, almost all girls, are typically seventeen to nineteen years of age, of average ability, and have usually completed three years of high school work before being enrolled in the department. They are "an earnest, conservative, and religiously minded class of girls." In the curriculum, now standardized, the common branches are assigned "three times as much time as is required for strictly professional studies," which include observation and practise teaching, with much emphasis on the latter. All of the wide program is usually taught by one teacher. The chapter on instruction is the longest in the report. Its chief finding seems to be that instruction is not on the high level it should be for teachers in training, and this is attributed to the fact that "one or two women are attempting to do what is done by a corps of specialists in the normal schools and college training departments." The control is in part state and in part local. State direction, thru legislation and supervision, has come to be the dominant factor, altho some important matters have been left to the discretion of the city superintendent. To the county superintendent are assigned some duties, most of them of an advisory and cooperative, rather than of a directive sort. The departments are supported almost entirely from state sources and the cost per student for a year is about fifty dollars less than that for training a teacher in a state normal school of Minnesota.

In the concluding chapter the author points out that the solution of the problem of securing adequately trained teachers for rural schools is to be provided, not by the continuation or modification of the present plan, but thru the system of state normal schools. These are not yet

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properly constituted to carry on the work. And before good teachers may be attracted to the rural districts, conditions there must be changed thru consolidation, better salaries, teacherages, etc. This solution is far in the future, but should not be lost sight of. For the immediate future the high school normal-training departments, which are "immensely better than nothing," should be continued.

University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minn.

Leonard V. Koos

The junior high school. By Leonard V. Koos. Harcourt, Brace & Howe. 1920. 179 p.

The reader who expects to find in this book of less than two hundred pages a complete treatment of the Junior High School in all its phases will undoubtedly be disappointed. It is not in any sense a complete treatment nor does it pretend to be. The purpose of the author, is given on pages eleven and twelve: "To contribute to the clarification of thought which is imperative in this chaotic situation. Towards this end effort is first made to establish out of current educational thought and by the assistance of such findings of educational science as are available a tentative working statement of the familiar purposes of this new institution." Dr. Koos also deals with certain features of organization, but his main purpose is as stated. From this point of view the book is a valuable contribution. The author's approach is scientific thruout and his statements have all the weight which comes from such an approach. In striking contrast with the authors of some other recent educational books who content themselves with a mere description of current educational practise, this author is perfectly willing to record his own judgments on disputed points, but gives, for the most part, the data upon which these judgments rest. This is the sort of leadership which we need at present. The book has certain defects of organization which, unfortunately, are likely to conceal some of its real worth. One can not help feeling also that it is more or less of an out-

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line rather than a complete treatment; on this account it is somewhat tantalizing in places by reason of the things that it omits. These defects are due in large measure, as we have already said, to the rather limited scope of the book as outlined in the purpose. It is well worth careful reading.

ARTHUR J. JONES
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The junior high schools. By THOMAS H. BRIGGS. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 1920. 348 p.

This book is a scientific study of one of the most important present day educational problems—not a mere academic discussion, but the presentation of data, founded on an extensive study, supported by personal visits to nearly one hundred Junior High Schools and then verified by the experiences of the principals of many of the well organized and fully established schools of this type. No important phase of the subject is omitted. The ordinary scheme of eight elementary and four high school years is analyzed thoroly and one is forced to conclude that the plan has not worked to the best advantage of the child. Unlike most books which advocate a new departure, this one presents fully and frankly both the pros and cons of the Junior High School discussion.

When one reads the author's historical sketch of the Junior High School and sees the service it is now rendering, he realizes that this newer type of high school organization is meeting a very definite need. Professor Briggs has given us a good summary of what the leading authorities on the Junior High School claim its function to be. Having ascertained this, he talks in terms of it. The Junior High School has not been considered as an isolated part of the school system, but rather as a part of a complete whole and its relation to the elementary school beneath and the senior high school above is clearly shown. The questions of entrance requirements, curricula, grades covered and graduation requirements are all discussed from the standpoint of actual practise rather than from personal opinion.

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The administrative question of how to enter a child who has completed the regular eighth or ninth grade has not been omitted.

After presenting facts as to the types of Junior High Schools, the author explains clearly the specific functions which the school can and should perform. He discusses departmental teaching, differentiated curricula, "exploratory" courses, extra work, sex segregation, special promotions, etc. His arguments for specially trained teachers are convincing. Thruout the book he has supported his statements by tables.

The advantages of the book in the mind of the reviewer are:

1. It is based on a thoro investigation.
2. The underlying principles of the Junior High Schools are discussed fairly and at length.
3. The administrative problems are handled in such a way as to be exceedingly helpful to those principals whose schools are in a position to organize a Junior High School.
4. The book has already been used with success as a college text.
5. The bibliography is complete.

J. J. Didcoct

George Peabody College for Teachers
Nashville, Tenn.

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IX

NOTES AND NEWS

A generation of progress in education

The EDUCATIONAL REVIEW has now completed its sixtieth volume and a full generation of activity. These thirty years mark an epoch of notable growth and development. In the terms of our present number, it has been a generation of educational progress. The broad conception and the advancement of education have been unparalleled in our national history.

On the material side there has sprung up a period of unprecedented liberality in the support of education. In the face of the present gloom engendered by the rise in the cost of living and the failure of salaries to keep pace, resulting in the loss to the profession of many of our strongest teachers, it should be noted that our school expenditures have been voluntarily multiplied many times over what they were a generation ago.

More important than this has been the expansion of our ideals. A radical change has taken place in the character and content of education. A decided tendency toward incorporating the industrial and vocational element is obvious, while the conception of liberal education has been given a broader and more practical interpretation, in harmony with modern life and interests. There has been a great development in the scope of school work. Corresponding with this, the possibilities for election have greatly increased, and courses of study and even institutions have been differentiated and multiplied. More latterly, a spirit of experimentation and scientific measurement has everywhere been introduced. And the vocation of teaching has blossomed into a real profession, requiring careful training and more clearly recognized standards.

The change in organization and administration has been equally noteworthy. Schools and colleges have been

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largely secularized and education brought more fully under public management. Control and supervision have been rapidly centralized, and there has come about a closer articulation of the different stages of educational work. And the hand of the politician and schemer has become less and less potent in education.

In all this evolution and development the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, under its distinguished founder and first editor, Dr. Butler, has played a leading part. And in the future it will endeavor to be worthy of its history and past leadership. It will stand firmly for an ever increasing generosity in the support and improvement of schools, and will maintain a catholic and hospitable attitude toward all phases of education and educational points of view. It will aim to conserve, but never to crystallize. In this spirit it would celebrate its birthday and enter into the heritage of progressive education everywhere in evidence.

The Denver Opportunity School The Denver Opportunity School has come to the attention of the public on several different occasions. But as it meets such an important and general need, it does not seem out of place to give it space in a number of the REVIEW devoted to progressive movements in education. This institution is a part of the public school system of Denver. Its purpose is to raise the academic and industrial standards of the community. To accomplish this, the school aims to meet, in the most direct way possible, the needs of those people who, because of lack of preparation, find themselves face to face with the difficulties of life.

The school runs continuously from seven-thirty in the morning to nine-fifteen at night. Any person over fourteen years of age may become a student and attend as many hours weekly as his vocation will permit. Classes are grouped with little formality. If a boy or girl desires instruction along a certain useful line, and a sufficient number of students is secured, a teacher is engaged and the work begins at once. The range of subjects is large,

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including automobile work, telegraphy, typewriting, shorthand, salesmanship, dressmaking, millinery, acetylene welding, vulcanizing, cooking, sheet metal work, electricity, machine shop work, wireless telegraphy, manicuring, hairdressing, commercial art, mechanical drawing, prospecting for minerals, correction of speech defects, English for foreigners, citizenship, seventh and eighth grade work, and most high school subjects.

As a result of opening this school, ten thousand people have been served during the four years of its existence. Many of these have received a better training for their daily work; hundreds of foreigners have been prepared for American citizenship; and, since the war, four hundred injured soldiers have been trained here. With this large number of people—many of whom would otherwise never enter any school—receiving instruction from a corps of carefully trained teachers, the value of such an institution can not be questioned.

Revision of the course of study for the State of Pennsylvania

While we are considering new movements in education, it is of interest to notice the progress that is being made in the revision and reorganization of the state high school course in Pennsylvania. This is now proceeding rapidly under the direction of the State Department of Public Instruction, and a complete report will probably be ready before the close of the year. The following extracts from a circular letter, issued by Deputy Superintendent W. D. Lewis, indicates the nature of the work and the plan by which it is being accomplished:

"Growing out of the deliberations of the Educational Congress held by this Department in November and the annual meeting of the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association at holiday time are several committees which have been formed to organize syllabuses in the following subjects: English, History and Social Studies, Science, Mathematics, and High School Administration. These committees will present preliminary statements before

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the opening of school in the fall. These statements will define the aims of the various subjects, will state the time allotment required for each year of the high school, and will give as definite an indication as possible of the content of the course and the method of instruction that will be detailed in the syllabus. Other committees will be formed in the near future.

"A few preliminary statements may be suggestive in relation to the plans of the high schools for next year. It is fairly well settled that the Committee on History and Social Studies will recommend Community Civics in place of Ancient History in the first year. Where Community Civics has already been given in the grades, it will recommend what might best be termed Economic and Vocational Civics for the first year. The history for the second year will be Modern European History with some attention to the growth of institutions thru ancient and medieval times. The larger proportion of the course, however, will be devoted to European History since 1750. American History will be prescribed for the third year and Problems of Democracy for the fourth year.

"The English Committee is agreed that English should be given thru the course, and that the time should be divided equally between composition and literature. It is also agreed that no textbook course in the history of literature should be given, but that whatever attention is paid to literary biography should be incidental to the reading of literature. A course in Etymology will be outlined, and it will be recommended that pupils who do not take a foreign language take this course.

"The Committee on Mathematics recommends that mathematics be required for only one year of the four year high school. It will outline a course in composite mathematics for the required year, but it is the consensus of opinion that the schools should be asked to choose between the course in composite mathematics and the course in algebra.

"The Science Committee strongly recommends general

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science for all pupils in the first year of the high school and recommends two years of general science in second and third grade schools. In many respects the Science Committee plans to follow the report on the Reorganization of Science in Secondary Schools by the committee of the N. E. A. This report probably will be published by the United States Bureau of Education in the near future.

"The Committee on High School Administration.... will study the problems of high schools in various types of communities and will make recommendations concerning constant and elective subjects, the form for publishing the course of study, and other administrative problems."

This would seem to be one of the broadest and 1ost progressive programs yet formulated, and one that should place the Pennsylvania high school course of study in the very vanguard.

The school building program of East Orange

A noteworthy contribution to progressive education has been made by East Orange in the formulation of its school building program. In common with every other city in the country, large and small, it has found itself confronted with a building problem. For two years needed schools could not be erected, because of the nation's demand for men and material. Meanwhile, however, East Orange was working out a comprehensive program upon a cooperative basis. Other cities have provided for the future with similar vision, but the New Jersey city outlined its plan and shaped all the details thru conferences of the principals, supervisors, and superintendent, and the work was done so well that the Board of Education and the Board of School Estimate approved the program both unanimously and enthusiastically.

This East Orange program is planned for a period of ten years. Based upon a careful study of the increase in school registration in all departments, as well as both the increase and distribution of the population for a period of ten years past, a census of about 72,000 and a school regis-

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tration of about 12,000 were conservatively estimated for the year 1929–30. It was found that since 1908 the high school enrolment had increased 125 per cent, and the elementary school enrolment 42 per cent; that the rate of increase had been considerably greater in grades seven to twelve than in the grades below; and that today 17 per cent of the school enrolment is in the high school. These findings strongly suggested that in the future the upper years are most likely to need relief, and the junior school plan was naturally considered to be best adapted to the situation. This form of relief, however, was not recommended until it was clear that the adoption of the junior school program would afford as good, if not superior, educational opportunities as those afforded by the present elementary-departmental-high plan of organization.

At the expense of the Board junior schools were visited in eight states by either the superintendent or principals. All types of junior schools were studied; and, altho differing in details, the principals and superintendent unanimously agreed that the six-three-three plan of organization would be the best basis for the building project. A study of progressive increase in enrolment showed that by 1929–30 there would be at least 2600 pupils in the junior department. Believing that a junior school of 1000 is about as large as one principal can manage efficiently, it was planned to erect three junior schools, each to be located as nearly as possible in the center of a junior school district. These districts were called "south," "middle," and "north" junior districts, and properly located sites were purchased as soon as it was feasible. The middle school is already under construction. It will be followed by the north, and then by the south schools—all, it is hoped, within a period of five years.

In addition to the junior schools, which will relieve only the high school and the grades above the sixth, it was found necessary to build within this ten-year period additions to elementary schools to the extent of about forty classrooms. These additions have been plotted out so that the order of their erection can be predicted with reasonable accuracy.

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The advantages of these progressive building plans are obvious. Thru them has been introduced a type of organization superior to the eight-four organization; the necessity for building a second high school for at least ten years has been avoided; a more economical and a more even distribution of relief has been secured than would have been possible by the constant building of additions to old buildings, some of which are poorly located; there has been a decided financial and educational economy by consolidating the intermediate teachers, students, equipment, and operations in large centers; an equipment for intermediate instruction has been obtained far superior to what could be introduced into several grammar schools; and a program with sufficient imagination in it to appeal to the people has been formulated. Above all, there has been cooperation of teachers, school authorities, and citizens. While the building plan was in preparation, the public, which has to pay the bills, was not forgotten. Thru the newspapers, the home and school associations, and circulars sent to the homes from the superintendent's office, the people were kept informed. The most effective propaganda was achieved by a circular headed "What is a Junior School?" The subheadings were: "What are the advantages?" "Why are Junior Schools recommended for East Orange?" This was sent into every home.

While the East Orange schools do not constitute a large system, Superintendent Broome is to be congratulated upon his success in educating not only the children, but their parents thru this venture. It is a triumph for progressive education.

Association of Urban Universities The annual meeting of the Association of Urban Universities had to be postponed for a month, and was held this year December 16–18 at Philadelphia. It will be recalled that this organization was formed at Washington in the fall of 1914 for the purpose of furthering the development and efficiency of institutions of higher education located in municipalities. This year the program included problems connected with teacher train-

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ing in coöperation with city school systems, evening education, training for business, and the college of liberal arts in an urban university. The sessions were held at the Drexel Institute and the University of Pennsylvania. Cleveland was selected as the place for the next meeting, and the following officers were chosen: *President*, Dr. Charles S. Howe, President of Case School of Applied Science; *Vice President*, Dean Frank P. Graves of the University of Pennsylvania; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Dean Frederick B. Robinson of the College of the City of New York.

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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

FEBRUARY, 1921

I

LOCAL SCHOOL SURVEYS

Constant change occurs in education as in every other line of human action. The methods of yesterday do not exist today. Insistent demands for increased efficiency prevent the schools from resting complacently on their laurels.

The school survey, made by a disinterested group of specialists, promised a radical improvement in school practise and attainment. The argument seemed conclusive. All that the schools needed were to be given a definite standard and to be told frankly in what particulars and to what extent they fell below this standard, and the desired change would be accomplished. Experience proved that this procedure did not realize the hopes of those advocating it. Sometimes the survey was instigated to create a public sentiment that would permit the execution of some subterranean design. Either the Board of Education hoped to establish a case against the Superintendent, or there was some other special axe to grind. Faults revealed by the survey were not always cured by the disclosures made because those on whom the initiative rested to make the necessary changes were paralyzed by a self-complacency that prevented effective action. It was an attempt to work a cure from the outside when a self-cure was the only solution.

As a result of this partial failure of the specialists' survey, there has slowly developed the conviction that the best results are attained when the survey is instigated by those

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upon whom the responsibility rests for initiating the necessary steps to accomplish the desired changes. A study of recent educational literature and superintendents' reports reveals a growing consciousness of the need for sufficient self-surveys to furnish the essential evidence for such modifications in local procedure as conditions permit. Instead of trying to cover the entire field, and accumulating a mass of useful facts, a single phase of the school situation is investigated and the narrowness of the field permits the undertaking of remedial measures.

Again, the honest self-survey has a greater potentiality for real results, because the local people know the situation better than even the most conscientious experts can learn it in the brief time at their disposal. School activities are so various and the results are so subtle that many items of supreme importance in local conditions necessarily escape the observation of the experts unfamiliar with the situation. No cursory examination will reveal the general educational sentiment of a community nor the professional attitude of the teachers. Even the most experienced of schoolmen are often deceived by surface indications, since teachers, for professional reasons, are usually careful to say little of their own personal convictions regarding their associates. These facts are so well known that a careful superintendent in a city of twenty or thirty thousand population usually plans to spend at least a year in familiarizing himself with local conditions before inaugurating a campaign of radical reconstruction.

The local survey obviates another very real difficulty encountered by imported experts. Local pride interferes with a fair estimate of reported conditions. The citizens are sure to feel that the defects of the local schools have been magnified and their excellencies overlooked. This is especially true if there is a conviction that the survey was inaugurated to verify *a priori* opinions. The same facts reported by the local authorities are construed as evidence of a progressive spirit and a desire to better local conditions.

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No superintendent can afford to attempt the task of school administration, unless he first collects the information which justifies his subsequent procedure. Lacking this essential data, he is like a rudderless ship drifting according to the whim of any temporary public sentiment. This may take the form of a demand that a new building be placed in a certain location. A study of the situation may show that the ultimate requirements of the district demand a different site. Convincing evidence of the error of the popular judgment is impossible, if a detailed study of the situation has not been made. In numberless instances public money has been wasted, because of the lack of definite knowledge relating to existing facts. In one New Jersey city, buildings in a certain section of the community were taxed beyond capacity, resulting in part-time classes, while a large building in another section was almost empty. Worst of all, it was apparent that this large building would not be filled for years to come. Such evidence of official blundering tends to alienate public sentiment and develop a spirit of questioning toward all other requests that come before the taxpayers. A prominent eastern college constructed several buildings with no comprehensive scheme for developing the institution. Later a more forward-looking plan was adopted and it was found that one of the earlier structures must be removed to a different location or demolished.

School authorities may profitably imitate big business in planning for future needs. The New York Telephone Company affords an excellent example of the possibilities of forecasting the future needs of any community. Telephone centrals are located only after the most careful study, not only of present needs but of the probable needs for twenty-five years. Vacant lots are counted and the probable type of buildings that will be constructed on them taken into consideration. If school officials would make similar studies of future needs they would avoid the frequent mistake of erecting a complete structure to which harmonious additions are impossible in a section which ob-

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viously is destined for a large future growth. A certain city in the State of New York a few years ago erected a high school, a complete unit, because of the opinion that this building would meet the needs of the city for an indefinite time. Within twenty years a reasonable increase in population crowded the high school beyond capacity. It was impossible to make any satisfactory addition to the building. The decision was finally reached to demolish the old building entirely and erect a new school on the same site. This is an instance of a waste of taxpayers' money running into tens of thousands of dollars that might have been saved by taking into consideration the future needs of the schools.

Signs are not lacking that school boards are recognizing their duty in this respect. The public press recently reported a resolution of the Board of Education of Newark, New Jersey, directing the Superintendent of Schools to make such a study of the local situation as would permit the formulation of a comprehensive building plan providing adequate school facilities for some years to come. Such a study as this presents no insuperable obstacles. The census reports give the percentage of growth for the section of the country and for the city for a series of years, and it is fair to assume a similar growth for the future. This may be checked by counting vacant building lots in typical blocks. Next the relation between school population and total population should be determined. The school records for a series of years will show the percentage of the school population actually in school attendance. Unless the character of the city changes entirely, this ratio may be expected to remain constant. Corroborated by the actual percentage of growth in school attendance, a basis for future plans is reasonably well established. Whether the proposed buildings are to be elementary or secondary must, of course, be determined from the ratio thru a series of years between the corresponding groups of pupils. When the total number of future pupils in the city has been computed, they must be distributed in districts of a predetermined size on the basis of similar estimates.

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Equally important are studies relating to school finances. The ability of the community to finance any desired extensions or modifications of existing practises must determine the procedure. The community with low ratables can not be expected to duplicate the program of a more fortunate municipality. The wealthy but penurious town, unwilling to finance a progressive educational scheme, must be aroused to the ultimate wisdom of a more liberal policy. Here facts, not opinions, count. No business man really believes that a worth-while system of education can be bought at half price. He knows full well that, other things being equal, the efficiency of the local schools bears an exact ratio to their comparative cost. The American citizen, despite his willingness to criticize, is proud of his schools, and will afford them generous financial support when the situation is fairly presented. He does ask, and the request is reasonable, that they receive a dollar in value for each dollar invested. The only way to answer his questionings is to know and supply him with the facts.

Lack of adequate information relative to disbursements often results in an unbalanced distribution of funds. The high school is allowed to use an undue proportion of the budget, supplies are used extravagantly and books are furnished too sparingly, fuel and light are wasted, and janitor service neglected, to the detriment of the physical well-being of the children. A proper distribution of available funds can be made only by a perpetual study of the accounts, in the administrative office. Successful modern industrial enterprises owe their prosperity to exact knowledge of all cost items. A large enterprise such as the public school system can not hope to succeed by rule of thumb calculations. It is true that clerical help adds to the expense, but the truest economy is wise expenditure.

Buildings and financial systems are important, but it should never be forgotten that they exist not for their own sakes, but as means for the best education of children. Schools must justify their existence by the degree of success they attain in realizing their main purpose. Here

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careful accounting is vital. Dr. Leonard Ayres exerted a profound influence upon school thinking by his studies of acceleration, retardation, and elimination. The careful administrator must know the percentage of the entering group completing the elementary school. He must know how many of these pupils complete the high school. He must keep careful watch of the percentage of over-age children, to see if curriculum adjustments are necessary and promotion standards need modification. Most important of all, he must never permit himself to collect statistics for the sake of collecting them. They must definitely function in schoolroom practise, or they are worse than useless.

One question continually asked by the public is "Are our schools efficient?" It is not enough to answer this natural inquiry by mere assertion, or by pointing to facts the validity of which depends upon opinions. There are facts indicating efficiency which can not be questioned. They are no more open to debate than that two and two are four. No one of the following list is conclusive in itself, but when all of them point to the same conclusion, no fair-minded man can justly question the proper deduction:

1. The percentage of over-age, under-age, and normal-age children.

Other things being equal, the school system in which a child reaches a certain grade at the proper age is more efficient than the one with a larger number of laggards.

2. The percentage of children making slow, rapid, and normal progress.

Normal progress means a proper adaptation of curriculum to child. Rapid progress signifies flexibility of administration. Slow progress signifies inflexibility, with children sacrificed to curriculum requirements.

3. Percentage of promotion.

"But," says the critic, "promotion can be made easy or so difficult that many fail." True enough, but it is self-evident that undue laxity in promotion carries with it its own

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penalty. Children promoted when unfit for promotion are ultimate failures.

4. Percentage of children held in school beyond the age of compulsory attendance.

Pupils can not be deceived. If the school is providing a worth-while education adapted to their needs, they stay in school. If the reverse is true, they seek employment as soon as the law permits.

5. The percentage of total enrollment in actual high school attendance.

If the holding power of the school is 100 per cent, there will be $33^1/_3$ per cent of the total enrollment in the high school, if the natural growth of the school system be ignored.

6. Actual number of days attendance.

Obviously children can not benefit from education, unless they attend school regularly.

7. Number of pupils per teacher.

8. Success in college entrance examinations.

This is an absolutely *ex parte* estimate of the quality of training afforded by the schools and would infallibly reveal any laxity in the promotion requirements in the lower grades.

9. Reports of college registrars on the record of students.

Many colleges make these reports, relative to freshmen, annually to the respective preparatory schools.

10. Per capita cost of teachers, books and supplies.

A high salary level surely serves to attract the best class of teachers.

Such indices as these are not dependent upon opinion, but are questions of fact. While not conclusive if considered singly, the combined weight of the evidence is sufficient to convince any reasonable man.

Space forbids any attempt to give a comprehensive scheme for a complete self-survey. Local conditions determine the type of investigation which will be most serviceable. The desire to know the facts for the sake of improving the local conditions is the essential element.

MONTCLAIR, N. J. DON C. BLISS

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II

THE PROBLEM AND THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL IN HAWAII

The American public school system is being put to the test in Hawaii as in no other part of the United States, for in no other section is it confronted with the task of preparing for American citizenship such a large proportion of children of alien parentage, and, what is more, of a parentage which runs as high in racial consciousness as do the orientals who predominate in the population. The magnitude of its task as well as the importance of its opportunity can be appreciated only after an analysis has been made of the peculiar and unusual conditions which obtain there.

I

For fifty years prior to the annexation of Hawaii by the United States various Hawaiian governments, thru authorized agents, had been combing the world for immigrants to meet the insistent demand for cheap laborers, which had arisen as the result of the rapid development of the sugar industry. From time to time, in consequence of these efforts, there were brought into the islands: Coolies from China and Japan; Portuguese from the Azores and Madeira; Norwegians; Germans; Russians; a white colony from the States; and various Polynesian groups cognate to the native Hawaiians such as the Manahikis from Reirsons and Humphreys islands, the Bukabukas from Danger Island, Melanesian cannibals, Gilbert Islanders, and natives of Fiji and New Zealand. Since annexation the planters have brought in many Filipinos for the same purpose. As a result of these efforts to secure laborers in sufficient numbers to care for the crops of sugar cane, there is now to be found in the Hawaiian Islands a racial situation more complex than is probably to be found anywhere else in the world—

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certainly than in any other of the chief political units of the United States.

In a population of 250,000, credited to the Hawaiian Islands by the 1920 census, 114,000 are Japanese, or about 46 per cent. The next nearest group in numbers is the Portuguese, comprising about 25,000 persons. Japanese children enrolled in the public schools of Hawaii in 1919 constituted also about 46 per cent of the entire enrollment. In respect to a high birth rate and a low death rate, a study of the facts discloses that the Japanese race is the most favored race of the islands, having, among all the races, made the best adjustment to conditions which affect race multiplication. Due, then, to initial numerical superiority and to the efficient manner in which they have adapted themselves to island conditions, the Japanese have acquired a momentum which puts all the other groups out of the running in the matters of numbers and prospective increase.

While the further immigration of Japanese and Chinese laborers to the Hawaiian Islands, as to all parts of the United States, has been stopped by law, and while, under the law, it is impossible for orientals now residing in the United States to acquire citizenship; nevertheless, because children born in the United States, of whatever parentage, may qualify for citizenship, the rapid growth of the Japanese groups in Hawaii is of the utmost concern, for it will mean, if the present rate be maintained, that by 1930, nearly a third of the Hawaiian electorate will be Japanese and by 1940 this group may be expected to comprise about one-half of the electorate. Whether or not the Japanese desire to achieve political control of Hawaii, without doubt, if the present rate of proportionate increase in numbers be maintained, within a few years they will be in a position to do so. The imminence of this possibility is rendered the more obvious because the Japanese in the islands, as with no other race, are rigidly maintaining a group solidarity, failing to fuse thru intermarriage as all other of the racial groups are doing.

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II

This situation points the public school and other educational agencies of the islands sharply to their distinctive work, *i. e.*, to shape their influence in such a way that the future American voter of oriental parentage shall be so fully and firmly grounded in the duties and responsibilities of American citizenship and shall so appreciate its privileges, that he can safely be trusted with participation in the affairs of the Territory. In the Hawaiian Islands the public school, the chief of the educational agencies of the islands, has a more serious and difficult as well as a more unusual task to perform than has the public school in any other part of the United States, for in no other section has the school ever before been confronted with the training for American citizenship of such large numbers of children imbued with such pride of race as are the Japanese.

As compared with typical situations in the States, the teachers in the schools of Hawaii are handicapped in many ways. Not more than two or three per cent of the children entering school for the first time can speak the English language. The teachers, therefore, from the first, before they can begin where teachers in the States begin, must establish a working vocabulary to serve as a medium of communication. In many instances it is weeks before the teacher can make herself understood. Furthermore, many of those who do come with some knowledge of English would better not have any at all, for it is the jargon of the plantations and the "pidgin English" of the streets which must, in the end, be eliminated.

Again, the teacher in the islands, as compared with the States, is further handicapped in her efforts to teach the English vernacular by reason of the fact that there are virtually no children from English-speaking homes, who, mingling with the children of the various races on the playground in their sports and games, serve as powerful allies in popularizing the English tongue. Enrolled in the schools of the islands, public and private, there are only about 2,400 children with whom the English language is native;

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1,500 of these are in private schools and 900 in the public schools. Obviously, 900 children scattered about among 36,000 children will exercise no appreciable influence; rather the danger is that they themselves will be overwhelmed by sheer numbers and their own language corrupted. Play and the playground constitute a tremendous asset to the teacher on the mainland who is dealing with children of foreign parents, an asset the importance of which is little realized until one is brought face to face with the situation that obtains where it is not a factor.

The instability of the teaching force of the islands is another handicap under which the schools are working. It is true that the teaching force of every state in the country is very much more unstable than is desired, and this impermanence has been very greatly accentuated during the war, when other activities paying larger salaries made such inroads into the teaching force of the country. The records in the office of the Territorial superintendent disclose the fact that during the past ten years 1,785 teachers have entered the public school system of the islands, of which number 1,014 have dropped out. In addition, there are 240 teachers still in the service who entered more than ten years ago, 38 from the mainland and 202 from the islands. Of the 1,014 teachers who entered and left the service during the 10-year period in question, 838 dropped out during the first three years of service; while 521, approximately 30 per cent of the entire group, remained no longer than one year. The median or middle point of service is approximately three years; that is, about as many have taught three years or more as have taught three years or less. Much is said in the islands in criticism of the "tourist" teacher from the mainland who comes to the islands merely for adventure and for sight-seeing, and who leaves after she has had her fill of both, and before she has been long enough in the system to have become sufficiently familiar with conditions to enable her to render efficient service. The facts show that more than one-half of the teachers from the mainland drop out during the first two years of service,

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while among island teachers the loss during the same period is about thirty-six per cent. After the first two years of service, however, the proportionate loss, year by year, runs about the same for the two groups. The shifting about from school to school within the system is also abnormally large. Outside the cities it is rare to find in any school more than a few teachers who retain their assignment longer than a year.

As compared with progressive sections of the States, there is a lack of close supervision of teachers, professional and educational in character and helpful in influence. The supervision districts are large. In many sections the population is sparse and schools are far apart and in instances difficult of access. On grounds of economy, the Territorial legislature has limited the number of supervising principals to nine, a wholly inadequate number. The supervision district of West Hawaii, presided over by one principal, is typical. Here the region covered by the supervising principal comprises a narrow belt of habitable land, 169 miles in length, skirting the shores of the island. This strip of cane, pineapple, and coffee land is dotted with small settlements of laborers and their families, who work on the plantations. A public school has been organized in every settlement. The settlements are all connected by a belt road which encircles the island. While this road is splendid in parts, in places, for distances of many miles, it is very bad, at times indeed being almost impassable for automobiles. This supervision district comprises 27 schools, with 91 teachers, and 3,000 pupils, ranging in grade from the first to the eighth, and representing fourteen nationalities.

Inasmuch as the only supervision the teachers of this group of schools receive, in addition to what principals can give who teach full time, is that given by the supervising principal of the district, it is obvious that, as compared with similar situations in the States, it is most inadequate. It is doubly meager, too, when account is taken of the impermanent and shifting character of the teaching

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corps and of the fact that many persons are assigned to classrooms who are without teaching experience, who themselves in many cases have only an eighth grade education, and who are totally without practical knowledge of the teaching art. The helpful professional supervision of classroom instruction, the kind of supervision which can and does consider the intimate difficulties of the individual teacher, the kind of supervision which most communities in the States are now insisting upon, is almost wholly lacking in the Hawaiian Territory. Of necessity, under present conditions, the work of the supervising principals must remain largely administrative, dealing with matters of a physical and business character chiefly. This is a necessary work, and it can not be neglected or shirked, and it seems to be done efficiently, indeed, the corps of supervising principals deserves much credit for the progress which the schools already have made; but it is, of course, no adequate substitute for that helpful, inspirational and personal supervision that trained and experienced men and women in the States are giving to the teachers in their charge.

But the greatest single difficulty confronting the public schools of the Territory, with which there is nothing comparable in the States, is the difficulty of counteracting and overcoming the influence of the system of foreign language schools, which has grown to formidable proportions, particularly among the Japanese. Among the island settlements, however, isolated or remote, wherever there is a group of Japanese laborers and their families, there is also alongside the public school or very near to it a school set apart for the Japanese children that attend the public school. One year ago there were 163 of these schools in the Hawaiian Islands, manned by 449 teachers, and having an aggregate enrollment of about 20,000 pupils. A number of new schools have been organized since, and in instances considerable sums, reaching $7,000 in one case, have been expended for the purchase of additional sites. In addition to the Japanese, the Koreans and Chinese have

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established language schools, some 22 in number, with about 40 teachers and approximately 2,000 children. Almost all of these schools are of elementary grade, tho there are a few kindergartens, and in eleven schools the work parallels the Territorial high schools, in part at least. In all instances the teachers of the Japanese schools are brought direct from Japan. They are certified teachers in their home country and, in a number of cases, are recommended to the local Japanese authorities by the educational department of Japan. None of the teachers were born or educated in Hawaii.

Except for some ten Christian schools, the others were organized under Buddhist auspices. In response, however, to local agitation a number of Japanese leaders have urged that they be separated from religious connections. In consequence, a number of them have declared themselves "independent," but there is much evidence to show that with many of this group the separation has been in name and not in fact. Five Buddhist sects prevail in the islands, the Hongwanji, the Jodo, the Sodo, the Shingon, and the Nichiren, but the Hongwanji is by far the most powerful and dominates the Japanese school situation. Many of the teachers of the schools of this sect are Buddhist priests, wholly unacquainted with English, and out of sympathy with American ideals and institutions.

The daily sessions of these schools vary with different schools. In some instances, tho not in many, children attend the Japanese language school from 6 A. M to 8.30 A. M., when they leave for the public schools. In other schools the morning session is not so long, the children arriving at 7 A. M. or 7.30 A. M. for a session of an hour or an hour and a half. There is also an afternoon session, after the public school has been dismissed, generally for an hour, but in some cases for an hour and a half. In some schools the children attend both morning and afternoon sessions; in other schools the older children attend in the morning, the younger in the afternoon.

Many of the children have no breakfast before leaving

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their homes, but take cold food along with them, which they eat on the way or between the morning session of the Japanese school and that of the public school. Until recently, Japanese children attended their schools on Saturdays and the year round as well, except for a two weeks' summer vacation. Now, however, the summer vacation has been extended to a month, no work is required on Saturday, and other vacations corresponding more nearly to those of the public school are allowed.

The textbooks used in the schools are the same as those employed in the government schools of Japan, except that in the primary and grammar readers a few lessons have been omitted to make place for the treatment of topics dealing with Hawaiian and American matters. The books used in the grades corresponding to those of our public high schools, are Japanese government texts unmodified in any way. There is nothing in these texts that can properly be construed as being anti-American. However, the texts are full of Japanese legend, history, rules of etiquette, and custom, and full of the glorification of Japanese accomplishments with many appeals to racial pride. No one with good taste would criticise the use of these books in the schools of Japan, but in Hawaii it is another matter. With children that are soon to become voters of the commonwealth, and to take a prominent part in the affairs of the Territory, these texts, without doubt, tend to retard the acceptance of American customs, manners, ideals, principles and standards.

The opinion is almost universal among the teachers of the public schools that the language schools are a serious drag upon the work of the public school. It is pointed out that the child's attention is divided; that in many instances, particularly with the younger children, they are stupid with sleep and do not respond readily; and that the method which the Japanese teacher employs in conducting recitations is diametrically opposed to that employed by the public school teacher. Japanese recitations are largely the verbatim repetition of the words of the text, repeated in a sing-song manner; while teachers of the public schools

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are seeking for the spontaneous expression in the child's own language of the meaning that he has obtained from what he has read. The two methods clash, and thus, it is asserted, the going is heavy for the public school teacher. The schools, moreover, exist outside the law. That is to say, they have sprung up without legal recognition. All other private schools of the island are recognized in the law, and are nominally under the control of the Territorial education department, a unique relationship having been thus established. Not so with these schools, for every effort so far made in the Territorial legislature to bring them under the authority of the Territorial education system has been defeated.

III

In comparing Territorial and mainland educational conditions, however, the comparison is by no means in all particulars to the disadvantage of the Territory. In no section of the States have the members of the commission found the children universally better behaved, cleaner, and neater in their appearance, more attentive to work, more amenable to the suggestions of the teachers, or more courteous and polite than are the children of the islands. Teachers everywhere report that they have few problems growing out of the ill behavior of children or of parents. Territorial authorities likewise report that the enforcement of the compulsory attendance law is a relatively simple matter. This, it may be said, is particularly true of the children of the oriental races. The problem in this connection is one of providing sufficient buildings and teachers for those who clamor for admission rather than of compelling attendance. The leadership, too, of the school system is in excellent hands, while the citizens of the Territory are taking a much greater interest in the education of the children of the alien parents than ever before. The very fact that a public school has been placed within the reach of practically every child in the islands, however remote his home, is an achievement, as well as a testimonial, to the earnest work of school administrators and of the

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school corps. And, in the erection of teachers' cottages and in improving the living conditions of teachers the Territory has outstripped all other of the chief divisions of the United States.

A glance at the list of items marking recent educational advance in the islands affords ample proof that the school authorities are alert to the need and determined to meet it. Such a list of actual or prospective advances includes among other items: insistence upon informing the public about everything the department does; securing the counsel and advice of representative laymen of the various racial groups; eliminating obsolete offices from the organization; advancing teachers' salaries and doing more for their comfort; raising the standards of training and qualification required of teachers; making a beginning in the incorporation of the kindergarten as an integral part of the school system; reducing the size of elementary school classes; providing school buildings of a more permanent and more modern type; creating a division for organizing work of industrial character; modifying a rigid and inflexible promotion system; decentralizing a highly centralized and mechanical system; and providing opportunity whereby teachers and other members of the school corps may have more of a voice in determining educational policy.

These features, coupled with the balmy climate and the amazingly beautiful and picturesque scenes everywhere to be found in this "Paradise of the Pacific," are compensations, in the thought of teachers, for the many difficulties and handicaps under which they are working. The problem confronting the public school in the Territory of Hawaii is a difficult one; the opportunity is correspondingly great. Plans are being laid for making more effective the machinery of the public school which bid fair to demonstrate that this agency created by our democracy for the training of our youth will adequately measure up to its responsibilities.

FRANK F. BUNKER

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

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III

INTELLIGENCE TESTS AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

In the course of the past two years there have been published fourteen new tests for the measurement of intelligence by group examination. These are not limited to any particular stage of mental maturity; every period of development from kindergarten to university is included in their scope. Seven are designed to measure the native ability of children in the first three grades. The remaining seven are adapted to students in the intermediate grades, in junior and senior high schools and the first year of college, the period covered by any one of these examinations varying from one scale to another. Surely we are witnessing a remarkable development in the field of mental measurement, concerning which it is opportune to ask what is its significance for educational progress.

This unusual productivity would have been impossible, had there not been much preparatory work. We owe to the patient students of the interdependence of mental abilities, and of the methods of measuring variables and to those who analyzed general intelligence into its constituent elements the present rich harvest. They broke the ground that is now being tilled to such excellent effect. The recent fertility, however, must be ascribed to the impetus given to group measurement by the successful application of intelligence tests on a colossal scale to recruits in the United States Army. Their unrivalled aid in the selection and classification of men has amply established the value of the group intelligence test for such purposes.

At the present moment we are somewhat dazzled by this success. There can be no doubt that, in comparison with earlier methods of selection and classification for purposes

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of training or placement, they have certain unique and indispensable qualities. The old way of deciding whether a person was fit to profit by a particular training or competent to perform tasks of a certain complexity was either to rely merely on subjective opinion derived from such intercourse as one had had with the individual, frequently only an interview, or to judge on the basis of a written examination, or to use both methods, or a cumulative series of these representing judgments and examination records that covered a number of years, including the grades of several different judges.

The evidence as to the unreliability of the subjective judgment has been accumulating at a rapid rate of recent years. Even where efforts have been made to refine and correct judgment by the use of a rating scale, such as the Army Scale for the Rating of Officers, or the Rugg Scales for self-rating of high school students and for the rating of teachers, there remains an important constant error due to the fact that we are unable to consider an individual as a congeries of separate characteristics and to judge each of these in independence of the rest. We seem habitually to regard a person in a general way as a superior, inferior, or average individual, and this affects all our judgments of him whether of intellect, character or skill.

Notwithstanding, it is not to be inferred that such rating scales are without value. They render great service in aiding us to analyze those intricate complexes, personality, efficiency or what not, into their dominant factors, and they do standardize methods of judging these to an appreciable extent. They represent a distinct advance on the unaided judgment. Any improvement of which they are susceptible should be speedily effected, because in certain directions we have no other available instruments. At the present moment, it is both customary and necessary to pass judgment on emotional and character traits and yet there are no objective measures of such qualities. The ordinary ways of judging are extremely unreliable and inferior to the rating scale methods. Rugg asserts that the

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prevailing methods of judging the efficiency of teachers on a scale of one hundred points has a probable error of ten to fifteen points. In other words, if a teacher received a mark of sixty, then the chances are twenty to one that this mark is within thirty points of the true mark. Such a scale as the Army Rating Scale for Officers reduces the probable error to five points on a hundred unit scale and the Rugg Scales for rating high school students and teachers to ten points on a scale of one hundred and ninety units. This increasing reliability is very satisfactory; nevertheless the subjective judgment, however carefully it is refined and corrected by such devices, falls short of the objectivity and reliability of the standardized test or scale, and teachers' or foremen's estimates of capacity are unlikely to be sufficiently accurate to justify complete dependence on them where objective measurement is possible.

As for the content examination which has been the chief instrument of selection up to the present, there can be little doubt that, in its pristine form, it has been shorn of much of its glory. Where wisely administered by teachers who appreciate its value as a way of assisting the pupil to express himself in writing accurately, coherently and briefly, and as a means of review and for organizing knowledge as well as an index to the learner of the degree of mastery he has attained, none would question its usefulness, indeed its indispensability in education. Where, on the other hand, it is the device of an external agency to gauge the capacity of individuals, it has proved ill-adapted for the purpose. Edgeworth showed over a generation ago the limitations of the content examination, owing to the personal equation of the examiners in judging, and also to the fact that examination papers are after all only a selection of material from a wide field, and are not always calculated to produce a representative sample of the student's ability. His own words are worth quoting in this connection:

"I am able to answer the following question with respect to any examination of which the results are published: How many of the candidates are

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quite safe in this sense, that if their work had been marked by another equally competent set of examiners, the failure of any assigned one of the successful is a very unlikely event, as unlikely as getting a run of six or seven heads or tails at pitch-farthing? The public examinations in which I have sought the answer to this question fall into three categories: the India Civil Service, the Army, and the Home Civil Service clerkships, of the second order. I find the element of chance in these public examinations to be such that only a fraction—from one-third to two-thirds—of the successful candidates can be regarded as quite safe, above the danger of coming out unsuccessful, if a set of equally competent examiners happened to be appointed. A corresponding proportion of the successful—from one-third to two-thirds—must be described as unsafe. A rather larger number, tho much smaller proportion of the unsuccessful candidates, would have a chance of succeeding at a re-examination: for instance, at three clerkship examinations twenty-five, forty-three and seventy-two out of a total of unsuccessful, respectively, one, hundred and twenty-six, one hundred and two, and one hundred and twenty-one.

This question may be asked: What number of displacements is most likely to occur in the event of a re-examination? The answer in some cases that I have scrutinized, proves to be about one-seventh part of the successful. Thus, where fifty clerks were appointed, it may be expected—the most probable event is that seven would be displaced by a re-examination of the same work."

Since Edgeworth published his results in 1888, several other studies have appeared and confirmed his findings as regards the unreliability of examinations as means of measuring the degree of mastery of a subject which a student has attained. Starch and Elliott in this country, among others, have shown that not only are teachers' marks unreliable in such subjects as English and History, in which our aims are less clearly defined (so that there are great differences in teachers' judgments as to the merits of the same paper and astonishing inconsistencies on the part of the same teacher rating the same paper on different occasions), but that even in subjects such as mathematics, a similar condition prevails.

The attempt to replace the typical content examination by more adequate instruments has led to two developments, which correspond to two distinct needs. In the first place, we have the movement towards standardization of educational tests. This has already achieved great things. In the field of elementary education there are at least eighty-four standardized tests; while for secondary schools over

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twenty-five are available. It is only a question of time when we shall have measuring rods of practically all school abilities. At the moment, it is true that the majority of educational tests measure the more mechanical aspects of the educative process and that the changes which teachers should be most bent on making in children can not be gauged. With the advancement of analysis of the capacities involved in elementary, secondary and higher education, together with improvement in measuring technique, this reproach will be removed. We shall, to an increasing extent, devise measures of other abilities than mere memory or skill and in particular we shall construct tests of the power to apply knowledge and skill.

The effort to originate power tests to replace the predominantly memory test of the old content examination is the root cause of the second line of development. This has been the primary object of the comprehensive examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board. In its Nineteenth Annual Report it is stated that "its purpose should be not only to ascertain whether the candidates have acquired the information and methods of thought necessary for successful college work, but also to determine whether they possess certain important intellectual qualities which are sometimes described as mental alertness, strength and endurance." The extent to which this purpose has been realized may be seriously questioned, but the recognition of the need of such examinations by such a body marks in itself a step in educational progress.

Another answer to this need has appeared in the shape of the intelligence examination, and, at the present stage, it is the best additional clue to the student's fitness to carry more advanced work or to embark on higher training. Moreover, this holds good at all levels and will remain true at the lowest rungs of the educational ladder. For purposes of classification in the elementary school, the general ability test will always be an indispensable instrument. When we approach the higher levels, on the other hand, we see its present triumphant position is only

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temporary. For the moment, the best scientific opinion regards it as a necessary check supplementing the method of certification. The latter system has been shown to be a superior way of securing students of academic promise to the typical college entrance examination. Investigations by Thorndike, Dearborn, Lincoln and others have established its superiority. Nevertheless, as a selective agency, the accrediting system is far from satisfactory. Doubtless it will improve in the future. At present in the accrediting system we have merely the subjective opinions of teachers and principals as to the capacity of their pupils. When standardized tests are widely used thruout the country, school records will represent more than mere personal impressions and will be based on objective evidence of a kind that can be safely relied upon.

Meantime we can not afford to depend on certification alone as a guarantee of fitness for college work. It is necessary that we should have an independent measure of aptitude for college studies. Intelligence tests are being applied for this purpose and their worth in this connection is now generally conceded. We know the extent of their reliability and of their predictive power. Already they have proved invaluable from elementary school to college in the classification of children according to capacity.

Previous experience, however, becomes increasingly important as a factor in success, and both high school and college not only require students with sufficient intellectual power to undertake the work they prescribe, but both must receive adequately prepared students, if great wastage is not to occur. The intelligence examination, however, measures ability independently of this special training, and the certification system unduly minimizes the importance of the differences in the quality of preparation afforded by different schools and is hard to administer equitably and efficiently. Therefore there is still lacking adequate means for selecting students for liberal arts colleges. What we require is the standardization of tests of

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capacities fundamental to various lines of college work. An analysis of academic ability along similar lines to the analysis of engineering ability by Thorndike would be a great contribution to educational progress. There is already considerable agreement as to what are the fundamental desiderata for entrance to a college of liberal arts. We find unanimity of thought that command of the vernacular is essential and general accord as to the desirability of some measure of mastery of at least one foreign language and a widespread consensus of opinion that every college entrant should have a certain degree of proficiency in quantitative thinking and in scientific method. If those capacities are admittedly essential for successful work, tests of these, carefully standardized for college candidates, should be constructed and applied. We should thereby not only eliminate from our higher institutions of learning those who fail to exhibit sufficient proficiency to profit by college study, but we should also be establishing valuable standards of attainment for high schools. The ground is already broken in the case of mastery of the vernacular, since one of the most valuable items in the Columbia Intelligence Examination is a measure of this very thing. In several other directions, there is a clear indication of the work that lies ahead.

Only by combining tests of general intelligence with tests of the specific abilities demanded by the college curriculum shall we secure an ideal student body in our higher institutions. The general intelligence examination, altho a most valuable instrument, must be supplemented as soon as possible by subject-matter tests. Intellectual dexterity in and of itself is not a sufficient reason for admission to college, important tho it be. Adequate preparation is also essential, and perhaps, by demanding such preparation, we shall also obtain students having qualities, such as industry, that are as indispensable for success with college studies as mental alertness.

Goucher College,
Baltimore, Md.

Agnes L. Rogers

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IV

TENDENCIES IN EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS

A brief discussion of such a comprehensive subject must include only the essentials. The following types of tendencies will be presented: (1) types of tests and scales now in existence; (2) types of uses now made of tests and scales; (3) development of new tests and scales; (4) research or efficiency bureaus; (5) consideration of measurements in educational associations; (6) literature on educational measurements; (7) reactions on present subjective methods of measurements; (8) the technique of development of measurements and their use; (9) some factors in the movement about which caution should be observed.

TYPES OF TESTS AND SCALES NOW IN USE

At least eight types of tests and scales, some standardized and some unstandardized, make up the present body of this newer procedure in educational measurement. First, there are the Binet-Simon general intelligence tests and their various modifications. Chronologically and as the theoretical basis, these tests are the source of much of the present work in measurements of mental functions. Of the general intelligence scales, there are also the Yerkes-Bridges point scale, the Otis point scale, the Myers scale, and a few other examples. The special tests of the cancellation and association types constitute a minor group of this first general class.

The chief development of measurements for the schoolman is in the attempts to measure products of classroom teaching. The first great group of these measurements are tests of mental functions of the informational and habitual types. The scales for handwriting, tests in spelling, first-year algebra scales, tests of historical and scientific

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information, are well-known examples of this group. Probably nine-tenths of existing scales and tests are primarily of this type. These were the first group to be brought into existence. It was easier to develop measurements of such functions, and their growth served to educate investigators in the technique of development of scales. The opponents of the movement, observing the character of these tests, freely predicted that it would stop there and would result in the widespread use of such measurements in the schools, and such use would inevitably result in undue stress in habit and routine functions in learning.

The third important type of measurements to appear consists of tests and scales for the measurement of the mental functions of thinking (reasoning, judgment). Stone's reasoning tests in arithmetic is an example which was produced early in the movement and which are now widely known. J. P. Herring's tests in abilities in scientific thinking[1] lists and attempts to measure the chief elements in scientific thinking. M. J. Van Wagenen's recently developed tests of abilities in United States history in the elementary school include two scales for information, two for thinking and two for character judgment.[2] E. U. Rugg has made a similar attempt in history.[3] In spite of Buckingham's recent criticism,[4] it is the writer's view that more investigation and development of tests should be made in this field.

The very difficult problem of producing tests of aesthetic (appreciative, enjoyment) functions is being attacked. Thorndike's scale for drawing is a pioneer. Pintner aims directly at the problem in his tests of children's aesthetic appreciation of pictures.[5] It is not inconceivable that, in the near future, we shall have samples of literature arranged in order of their appreciative values, and literary

[1] Jour. Ed. Psych., Dec., 1918, p. 535.

[2] Van Wagenen, Historical Information and Judgment in Pupils of Elementary Schools. Teachers College Contributions to Education, 101.

[3] School Review, 27, 757, Dec., 1919.

[4] Jour. Ed. Research, 1, 161, March, 1920.

[5] Ped. Sem., XXV, June, 1918.

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merit, well standardized, and of great service in measurement of some of the elements of aesthetic appreciation.[6] Indeed, there are already promises of such scales. In the field of music, the remarkable work of Seashore has resulted in a method of making evaluations of some of the elements of appreciation of music.[7] This type of measurement is commonly considered the impossible by the opponents of standardized measurements. It is to be hoped that the experimentation will prove so successful as to confound their claims.

The measurement of ethical qualities is another difficult problem, yet there are two attempts to make score-cards that can be used for this purpose. The first of these is "A scale for measuring habits of good citizenship," by Upton and Chassell, and published in the Teachers College Record for January, 1919. Of quite similar general nature is H. O. Rugg's score-card plan for rating and self-rating.[8] An approach to the measurement of the same types of qualities is also observable in some of the recent attempts to produce score-cards for teacher rating. An example is that of Landsittel in School and Society.[9]

Measurement of the material facilities of educational institutions has been undertaken. School buildings and school grounds can now be rated by use of score-cards prepared by Strayer and his confrères. One for city school buildings has been in use for several years. The other for rural school buildings is a recent product. To evaluate the merit of textbooks, the score-card plan is provided, but not standardized, by G. M. Baker.[10]

The development of the tests for use in selection and classification of army recruits, under the direction of Thorndike, made possible a product for use in experimentation and measurement outside of the army. Consequently, we

[6] C. C. Peters, of Ohio Wesleyan, is now at work on a scale of this type.

[7] *Psychology of musical talent.*

[8] School Review, May, 1920.

[9] VI, 774, Dec. 29, 1917.

[10] Ky. High School Quarterly, Oct., 1919.

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now have such experiments in progress. Madsen and Sylvester[11] give data on use of these tests among high school students. Van Wagenen[12] reports data on the same use of these tests.

TYPES OF USES MADE OF TESTS AND SCALES

First, there is the original use of standardized intelligence tests in institutions for defectives and dependents. Second, such tests are now being given to children in the public schools, but as yet, little or nothing has resulted from their use, to make improvements in the schools. Third, both intelligence tests and measurements of classroom work are being used in surveys of school systems. Surveys of Denver, St. Paul, Nassau County (N. Y.), and Cleveland, give examples of the use of measurements in surveys. These surveys also constitute a means of development of new tests and scales. This is illustrated by Trabue's Nassau Supplement to the Hillegas Composition Scale, and by the survey work of the Inter-Church World Movement, in which Evenden and Englehardt have produced a score-card for church buildings, and Peters is developing a score-card for evaluation of church school literature. Fourth, individual school systems and small groups within school systems are gradually beginning to use standardized tests of schoolroom work, to diagnose and to make improvements based upon such results as are obtained from the tests and diagnosis. In Ohio, the work of Prout at Chillicothe, Patterson at Xenia and Bucyrus, and Skinner at Marietta, are good examples. Fifth, there is a gradually growing tendency to use intelligence tests in college entrance methods, and to use various standardized measurements with students in colleges and universities. The experiment of Columbia University in the use of tests for college entrance is the one outstanding example of such work. The work of Thurstone, of Carnegie Institute of Technology, illustrates investigations in methods of the use of tests in college entrance

[11] School and Society, Oct. 4th, 1919.

[12] Jour. Ed. Admin. and Super., April, 1919.

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and to secure improvement within the institution itself. Psychologists in many places, are beginning to experiment with measurements as means of diagnosis and prognosis, and as bases for improvement of educational practises in colleges.

Considering the use from a different angle, four tendencies are observable. First, diagnosis and resulting change in educational practise are not yet the prevailing practises, as they should be. This is a dogmatic statement but the writer believes he can verify it by a considerable body of data, if necessary. The prevailing use is, like the older subjective examination, to give the test, probably make a few computations and comparisons, and to go no further. Second, careful discrimination between tests of proven validity and those of unknown validity, is not always made. In recent cases, tests have been used, and deductions made from their results of rather sweeping nature, when as yet the validity of the test used had not been established. This, too, is a dogmatic statement of the matter, but the writer believes it can be easily substantiated. Third, many tests and scales may be valid as to their component elements, but have not been standardized. Such scales put into use are occasionally used with the same assumption of exactness of measurements as if they were standardized. The writer has observed a few cases of this in some schools in Ohio during the last year. Fourth, there is a rather strong tendency to assume that a test measures things which it was not devised to measure. That is, the measurement is inconsistent. For example, to use the Monroe Timed Sentence Spelling Test, and then to infer from the results much about the size of vocabulary, is open to question.

More specialized uses than the aforementioned are illustrated by the following: (1) The special attempts of Whipple and a few others to use tests and scales to select exceptionally capable children and to serve as a basis for devising educational procedure for such children.[13] (2) There is a slightly growing tendency to make tests and

[13] Whipple, *Selection and training of gifted children.*

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scales contribute directly to the diagnosis of abilities and training of children as individuals, rather than in groups. This is shown by Buckner's recent study.[14] (3) To determine improvement thru the school year in abilities in schoolroom subjects is represented in a recent study by Henmon.[15] (4) To help in educational guidance (implied in individual treatment) is avowed by Proctor.[16] (5) To bring standardized tests and scales into use in rural schoools is illustrated by Brooks.[17]

DEVELOPMENT OF NEW TESTS AND SCALES

In reading, some new scales have appeared and a few experimenters are at work on others. McCall, of Teachers College, is now developing such a scale. Writing does not seem to be the great object of study as it was a few years ago. The same is true of arithmetic. The extension of the Ayres spelling list (scale) by Buckingham is of importance because it increases the possibilities of this widely known list. In General Science, Ruch[18] has brought out a test for information. Downing[19] has also made a similar attempt. J. C. Chapman and his co-workers have produced tests in physics covering Mechanics, Sound, Light, Magnetism and Electricity.[20] Herring's tests of scientific thinking mentioned above represent a combination of science test with intelligence test.

Foreign languages, because of the large element of habit formation material, represent a tempting field for early development of tests. To the earlier tests of Hanus (Latin), Henmon (Latin), Starch (Latin, German, French), recent additions have been made. Handschin has devised a test for the purpose of diagnosing the type of linguistic capacity that the learner possesses.[21] The same author has re-

[14] *Educational diagnosis of individual pupils.*
[15] Jour. Ed. Research, 1, 81.
[16] *Ibid.*, 1, 369.
[17] *Ibid.*, 1, 392.
[18] General Science Quarterly, 4, 257.
[19] School Science and Math., 19, 228, March, 1919.
[20] School Review, 27, Jan. and Dec., 1919.
[21] Modern Language Journal, 3, 1–4, Oct., 1918.

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cently placed upon the market thru the World Book Company, some tests (yet unstandardized) of the modern languages taught in secondary schools. Henmon has new tests of French modeled on the same plan as his earlier Latin tests.[22] L. A. Wilkins has produced what he calls "predetermination" tests for French and Spanish.[23] Starch and Watters have added a new series of tests for high school Latin based upon Lodge's study of the vocabulary of high school Latin. The writer has, with the assent of Professor Paul Hanus, prepared forms for the giving of the Hanus Latin tests.

Tests of abilities in history, which are new, are as follows: Van Wagenen's tests of information, judgment, and character judgment of pupils in elementary school history have been mentioned. S. B. Davis (Pittsburgh) will soon have completed tests in history of the American colonial period. Sackett has added a scale in United States history. Buckingham has recently attempted to show that tests of historical information are also of great value as indices of thought activity.[24]

The subjects commonly called vocational have felt the influence of the movement, and tests are here represented as follows: F. M. Leavitt's tests of manual arts; Wardner's test for knowledge of tools; Bowman and Trilling's tests in textiles and clothing; and Murdoch's scale for certain elements of hand sewing.

The development of new tests is interesting many candidates for advanced degrees as well as other men engaged in research, and we may confidently look forward for other new tests and scales in the immediate future.

RESEARCH AND EFFICIENCY BUREAUS

Three types of such bureaus have appeared. There are those conducted by higher educational institutions for experimental and research work and not always having any

[22] Jour. Ed. Research, Vol. 1.

[23] Bull., High Points, N. Y., City Schools, Feb., Oct., 1919.

[24] Jour. Ed. Research, March, 1920.

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direct and necessary influence on existing schools. In spite of their character, they are exerting great influence in some localities. Striking examples are those at the Kansas State Normal School, Emporia, University of Illinois, and Indiana University. A second type consists of the bureaus conducted by individual school systems primarily for their own local benefits. Those in Los Angeles, Cleveland, Detroit, and New York City are examples. A third type is found in a few state departments of public instruction. The bureau at Madison, Wisconsin, illustrates the type. The Ohio laws provide for bureaus of such type in each of the five state higher educational institutions and in the state department of public instruction, but lack of support and lack of vision have prevented their establishment and development.

MEASUREMENT IN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The National Association of Directors of Educational Research, a new organization, is devoted primarily to the work of development of educational measurements. The section on education of the National Academy of Science has given a major portion of its recent programs to measurements. A small number of educational institutions conduct annual conferences on educational problems, and measurements have had a prominent place in several of these. The Annual Schoolmen's Week at the University of Pennsylvania has, for two years, given much consideration to measurements. Indiana University has its well-known annual conference on educational measurements. The National Society for the Study of Education has devoted two of its recent annual programs and two of its yearbooks to measurements. There are also many local educational associations and teachers' institutes that give time and consideration to this movement in some of its phases.

LITERATURE ON EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS

Standard works widely known and treating of measurements, their theory and practise, include the following

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authors' writings: Thorndike's *Theory of Mental and Social Measurements;* Rugg's *Statistical Methods Applied to Education*, Starch's *Educational Measurements*, Monroe, DeVoss & Kelly's *Educational Tests and Measurements*, Monroe's *Measuring the Results of Teaching*, Chapman and Rush's *Scientific Measurement of Classroom Products*, and Terman's *Intelligence of School Children*.

Periodical publications which give much space to educational measurements include the Journal of Educational Psychology and the new Journal of Educational Research, the latter being the organ of the Association of Directors of Educational Research. Other journals which devote some space to educational measurements are as follows: School and Society, which from its beginning has devoted weekly one section to publication of educational research of a statistical nature: School Review, Elementary School Journal, Teachers College Record, and under its new editor the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW has been publishing material on educational measurements. The Pedagogical Seminary also has some space for articles in this field. Other educational journals very infrequently publish material of this sort.

A very considerable body of literature on educational measurements appears in the doctoral theses of the School of Education of the University of Chicago and Teachers College (Columbia), the latter leading all in this respect. Such material appears occasionally at other institutions. Bulletins of bureaus of educational research constitute another valuable body of this kind of literature.

REACTIONS ON PRESENT SUBJECTIVE METHODS OF MEASUREMENTS

In a few cases, attention has been given to attempts to refine and make more reliable the present subjective measurements. This is in marked contrast with the earlier stages of this movement during which the criticism of the subjective measurements brought about such constructive suggestions as checking by use of the probability curve, use of completion tests with the method of right and wrong

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cases, and rating by relative position. Probably the best recent reaction is the sugggestion made by McCall in his A New Kind of an Examination. The following statement and accompanying directions illustrate this.

"In general, the mountain ranges run east and west. TRUE FALSE." If the statement is true, the pupil is to underline the word true; if false, underline the word false. The pupil's total score is the difference between the total correct underlinings and the total incorrect underlinings.[25]

Inasmuch as subjective tests will be used for many years, the need for improving these (if it can be done) should not be overlooked and all attention given to the development of objective tests.

TECHNIQUE OF STATISTICAL METHODS AND DEVELOPMENT AND USE OF MEASUREMENTS

In the methods of developing new tests and scales, there seem to be no new general procedures, but practically all follow the pattern established by the first attempts, such as were used in making Thorndike's handwriting scale, and Trabue's language completion scales. However, some of the specific phases of these methods are being used more carefully. This is shown by the method used by Starch and Watters in their Latin tests as compared with the method used by Starch in developing his earlier Latin tests.

In the use of statistical methods, there is a very evident tendency to improve technique. Courtis and Thorndike's discussion of Correction Formulae for addition tests,[26] Ayers's plan for a shorter method of computing the coefficient of correlation,[27] and McCall's recent consideration of the nature of the median[28] show well this tendency.

SOME FACTORS WHICH DEMAND CAUTION

In our development of steps in a standardized scale, the term value has been frequently applied to the numerical

[25] Jour. Ed. Research, 1, 33.
[26] Teachers College Record, 21, 1.
[27] Journal of Educational Research, 1, 295.
[28] Teachers College Record, 21, 124.

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index of the "step." This has, in some cases, led to confusion with social value, when the numerical index indicates degree of difficulty. That there is some relation between the two is probably true, but they are not identical. More careful definition of this is, therefore, necessary to avoid the confusion resulting from the identification of the two things by those using the standardized measurements.

G. M. Wilson has made the criticism that we are producing tests for abilities in subjects, much of the content of which has not yet been shown to be of any very great value. He illustrates, by use of arithmetic. Assuming his criticism to be true, we are facing two other problems. First, we are probably wasting time and energy by producing such tests, and second, such tests, if widely used, well standardized, and used as bases for comparisons between efficiencies of school systems, can become educational "bogies" that will tend to keep curricula static.

Teachers and all educational workers are concerned at all times with more than measurements. Administrative problems other than those of measurement, determination of valid educational aims, methods, and content, are present at all times. Measurements must contribute to the solutions of the problems involved, but they can not do the thing alone. In our enthusiasm for measurements, it is, therefore worth while that we observe caution as befits true scientists, and not overlook other factors in the educational activities of the nation.

Lastly, there is a possible error of inconsistency in our work of measurement. This has been referred to above. To be scientific we will do best to make claims on the basis of data and to make no claims for measuring all human mental functions with a test devised to measure but a few, or to claim measurement of several by a scale devised to measure but one.

ARTHUR R. MEAD

OHIO WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY,
DELAWARE, OHIO.

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V

INTELLIGENCE EXAMINATIONS AND ADMISSION TO COLLEGE

The educational literature of the last three years contains numerous articles concerning intelligence examinations. Much data has been printed bearing upon the value of such examinations for various purposes. I will, therefore, not now present additional statistics, but will assume that sufficient evidence is already available to justify a reasonable but cautious use of such examinations in several connections; and in particular, in connection with the selection of students for admission to college.

Let us begin with some negative considerations:

1. Under no circumstances should the results of an intelligence examination, or even a series of such examinations, be the sole criterion in deciding upon an application for admission to college.

2. Intelligence examinations should never be considered as substitutes in any school or college curriculum for the systematic study of subject matter.

3. Whenever definite knowledge of certain subject matter, or skill in certain processes, is a necessary prerequisite for a student's success in a particular subject of study, the results of a general intelligence examination can throw little light on the advisability of permitting the student to take up that subject of study. For example, the advisability of permitting a student to enter a class in Solid Geometry is affected very little by the results of any intelligence examination that may have been given to that pupil, except possibly in a negative direction.

In connection with the last paragraph, it should be observed that the question as to whether any particular student is qualified to take up college work with the pros-

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pect of success is not the same as the question as to whether that same student should be permitted to take up the study of a subject that has particular subject matter prerequisites. Frequently, however, questions of the second type have to be answered simultaneously with the answering of the question as to the general qualifications of the student for successful college work. For example, if a student desires to undertake a course in engineering in which the first mathematics that he would have to take presupposes certain definite mathematical knowledge, then there are two distinct questions to be settled. First, has he the necessary general ability to succeed with the course in question, which will include several subjects besides mathematics, some of which do not have subject matter prerequisites; and second, has he the necessary specific preparation to succeed with the first mathematics in the course? Of course, in connection with the same student, there may also arise questions concerning other subjects in the work of the first year, but it has been rather surprising to learn that the actual subject matter prerequisites necessary for success in first year work are very small, even in a course so rigidly fixed as most engineering courses.

In fact, in our larger universities, arrangements have been made whereby a student may take up work in almost any subject of study, even tho he may not have previously studied the subject in question. There are classes for beginners in all of the foreign languages that are taught at all. The first courses in history do not presuppose any particular historical facts, but merely what might be called a general historical sense, which any boy or girl will have acquired during the first eighteen years of his life, if he has sufficient general intelligence to justify his undertaking a college course. In English literature, it is customary to begin with a historical survey without presupposing a knowledge of any particular literary facts. In the sciences, provision is made for classes for beginners; that is, no knowledge of science is presupposed; and, in many institutions, the students are placed in the first work in science,

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regardless of whether or not they have previously had a course in the science in question, or in any science.

Mathematics is the one subject which can not be carried on in most of our universities at present unless the student has previously studied certain definite elementary mathematical subjects. Of course, it is essential for successful freshman work in a university, that the student should be able to express himself in good English in both oral and written form. This does not, of course, mean that it is unimportant whether or not the college freshman has previously studied English literature. Unless, in some way, he has obtained a literary background, the value of his first college course in literature will be much reduced. The point is that it matters little, if any, just what particular pieces of literature he has studied, or what particular literary facts he has fresh in his memory when he starts his college work.

The statements just given show that the necessary subject matter prerequisites for successful freshman work in a college department of a large university, are very few, especially if mathematics is not one of the subjects to be studied. In smaller institutions, the situation is not much different. In most cases, the difference is only in the omission of provision for language courses for beginners, or in the case of engineering schools, in the omission of provision for classes in elementary sciences or mathematics, which are usually real prerequisites for the regular freshman work in engineering courses.

The essential difference between high school work and college work is not in the particular facts that make up the subject matter taught, but in the state of advancement of the students in mental maturity and in the pedagogical methods of handling the subject matter. The subject of plane trigonometry is now taught to many students in high school. It is also taught to many others in college, but the methods of presentation are, or should be, very different. Plane geometry is included in some graduate school courses in mathematics, presented, of course, by

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methods vastly different from the methods of the preparatory school. There seems to be a need for the development of a type of method suitable for the presentation of plane geometry to college freshmen.

Any university which admits five hundred or more freshmen annually from high schools distributed all over the country, receives students with a hundred or more different combinations of entrance subjects. No statistics have yet been published which even tend to show that the students who had any particular combinations, or types of combinations, of entrance subjects, have done better in college, because they had those particular entrance subjects.

Which then seems the more significant inquiry concerning a candidate for admission that has just completed a general four-year high school course: "What subjects has he previously studied?" or "What is his general intelligence and ability?" Is it not likely that the student of high grade intelligence will make a good scholastic record, regardless of the particular combination of subjects that he may have studied in his preparatory course?

Therefore, our next question is: How can the grade of intelligence of a high school graduate be determined? If it is true that the higher the grade of intelligence of the student the higher, in general, is his scholastic record, then the quality of work done by the student during his high school course is an indication of the grade of his intelligence. Of course, the quality of his high school work indicates other things about his mental make-up besides intelligence, especially if the word "intelligence" is restricted to the technical meaning given to it by psychologists.

From the preceding considerations, I am led to believe that of all the various types of data concerning a prospective college student, the quality of his high school work is the most significant, but that it is significant primarily because it gives a measure of his general ability, rather than because it indicates a knowledge of any particular facts. Therefore, intelligence examinations can, in general,

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be valuable in connection with the selection of students for college admission, only as supplementing the high school record, and not as a substitute for it. They may be used by the high school, as occasion justifies, thruout the high school course, for aid in the school's guidance work, and they may be used by the college or university as one means of reaching a final decision in cases where the school record and other information from the school do not show clearly that the applicant is fully qualified to do college work successfully.

I am inclined to believe that the most valuable use of intelligence examinations for educational purposes is in connection with the guidance work of the schools. It is encouraging to note that some schools are assuming educational and vocational guidance as one of their functions, and that here and there a school has in actual operation a system of guidance that is of inestimable value to its pupils in helping them to undertake types of life work suitable to their respective abilities, and not requiring abilities beyond their respective native capacities.

May we not then lay down, as a first principle, that the colleges and universities would be justified in accepting without question the judgment of a school operating such a system of guidance; that is, the school's judgment as to which of its graduates are qualified to do college work successfully? Would it not be of great value to the cause of education if some well established educational authority would determine a set of standards defining a first-grade system of guidance suitable for a first-grade high school. Schools measuring up to such a set of standards might very properly be listed as Class A schools and given special certificating privileges by the colleges and universities. I feel justified in bringing this matter into a paper concerning intelligence examinations because it is in connection with the guidance work of the schools, it seems to me, that such examinations will have their most valuable use as an aid in selecting students for admission to college.

The number of schools that would fall into Class A at

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present would be very small, and it is possible that the number will be small for many years. All other schools are in two classes now; those which measure up to the standards of first-class accrediting organizations, such as the commissions of the North Central Association, or of the Association of the Southern States, and those which do not measure up to those standards. Furthermore, some schools deem it unwise to assume the responsibility involved in certificating students as able to do college work successfully. On the basis of the assumption or non-assumption of that responsibility, schools that measure up to first grade standards may be further classified.

In order that I may conveniently explain what it seems to me might be a reasonable use of intelligence examinations in selecting students for admission, I wish to suggest the following classification of secondary schools:

Class A.—Schools that are organized and equipped so as to measure up to the standards of first class accrediting organizations, and are willing to assume the responsibility involved in certificating students as able to do college work, and that, in addition, are operating an approved system of educational guidance which leads definitely to the giving of positive advice by the school to certain students that they have the ability to do freshman college work successfully and to the giving of advice to other students that they do not have such ability.

Class B.—Schools that are organized and equipped so as to measure up to the standards of first-class accrediting organizations, and are willing to assume the responsibility involved in certificating students as able to do college work successfully, but do not operate an approved system of educational guidance.

Class C.—Schools that are organized and equipped so as to measure up to the standard of first-class accrediting organizations, but do not operate an approved system of educational guidance, nor even assume the responsibility involved in certificating students as able to do college work successfully.

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Class D.—Schools that are not organized so as to measure up, in all respects, to the standards of first-class accrediting organizations.

Let me now suggest the following rather comprehensive plan for selecting students for college admission from among graduates of schools falling within one or another of the above mentioned classes:

To schools in Class A should be given the privilege of certificating any of their graduates who are definitely advised, by the operation of the established system of educational guidance, that they have the ability to do college work successfully. As stated above, it is understood here that intelligence examinations would play an essential part in the operation of a satisfactory system of educational guidance. In these cases, the intelligence examinations would be administered by the schools themselves, probably by a psychological expert.

To schools in Class B should be given the privilege of certificating students from some upper fractional part of their graduating classes, probably, in general, from the upper half; that is, graduates in the upper half of the graduating class of a school in Class B would, by this plan, be approved for admission without any examinations by the college or university, provided the school certified them as able to do college work successfully, and provided their high school curriculum covered a satisfactory range of subjects. Students not having a sufficiently high rank for certification, as just explained, should be given the privilege of demonstrating that they are qualified to do college work successfully, by taking one or the other of the following alternative series of examinations:

1. Comprehensive examinations in four subjects as defined by the College Entrance Examination Board, one of which should be English, or

2. Two special examinations:

(*a*) An examination in the ability to use the English language as a means of pursuing the various university freshman subjects of study and

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(*b*) An intelligence examination.

By giving the applicant his choice between these two series of examinations, he is given an opportunity to demonstrate, in whichever of the two ways seems best to him, that he is qualified. A student, either on his own initiative or upon the advice of his school, might elect to take a series of four comprehensive examinations in the ordinary academic subjects if it was felt that the subject matter involved was fresh in his mind and his memory was quite reliable. On the other hand, the student who had not so recently reviewed his high school subjects or who felt that an examination in general intelligence would give him a fairer opportunity, could wisely select the series made up of a test in English ability and an intelligence test.

Graduates of schools in Class C should be offered the opportunity of demonstrating their fitness by a combination of school record and examinations, and to such students, I would offer the option of three alternative plans. First, four comprehensive examinations, all taken during the same examination period; second, two special examinations, as designated above, namely, an examination in the ability to use English and an intelligence examination; or third, a succession of ordinary entrance examinations spread over a period not exceeding two and a half years and making a total of fifteen units. In all three of these options, the results of the examinations should be considered along with the school record, and any additional significant facts that might be furnished to the college.

There is a modification of the plan for Class B schools which could be readily made so as to adjust the plan to the varying standards of the secondary schools. Instead of the arrangement suggested above, of permitting all Class B schools to certificate students from the same upper fractional part of the graduating classes, the acceptable fractional part of the graduating classes might be varied among the schools according to the quality of scholastic work done by their several groups of students in college. This adjustment could be made by the following general scale:

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1. Schools whose students have done freshman work in college *much above* the average of the freshman college classes of which they form a part, should be given the privilege of certificating students from *the whole* of their respective graduating classes.

2. Schools whose students have done freshman work in college *only slightly above* the average of the freshman college classes of which they form a part, should be given the privilege of certificating students from *the upper three quarters* of their respective graduating classes.

3. Schools whose students have done freshman work in college *on a par with* the average of the freshman college classes of which they form a part, should be given the privilege of certificating students from *the upper half* of their respective graduating classes.

4. Schools whose students have done freshman work in college *only slightly below* the average of the freshman college classes of which they form a part should be given the privilege of certificating students from *only the upper quarter* of their respective graduating classes.

5. Schools whose students have done freshman work in college *much below* the average of the freshman college classes of which they form a part, should *not* be given the privilege of certificating students *at all.*

In considering the methods just suggested for selecting students, it should be borne in mind that, in all cases under consideration, the student has fully completed a four-year secondary school course and has satisfied the requirements of his school for graduation. Moreover, at least, three-fourths of the high school curriculum should have been devoted to the well-organized academic subjects of study. In other words, he will have had a broad secondary school course that will give him the background necessary in order to succeed with his college work. If that background is assured, then it seems to me, for the reasons brought out in the earlier part of this paper, the prime question is as to whether the applicant for admission has the necessary general intelligence. The purpose of the examinations, whether

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they are the ordinary entrance examinations, or comprehensive examinations, or the special English and intelligence examinations, is to determine the student's general intelligence, and not, at least primarily, to learn how many facts he has fresh in his memory.

It is, of course, true that the college freshman who has, just before entering college, been able to pass entrance examinations in mathematics, for example, will be able to make his very first work in college mathematics, if he takes that subject in college, create a better impression upon his instructors, but it is almost certain that he will not continue his lead more than a few weeks as compared with the boy with a higher grade of intelligence, even tho the latter may not have his mathematical facts so fresh in mind when he starts his college freshman work. The plan outlined above has in view the selection of students who will stand the strain with good records thruout the college course, and not merely the selection of those who will make the best start during the first few weeks.

The relative merits of the types of examinations used in the above plan can be determined by actual use. If a few first-class colleges or universities would be willing to offer the opportunity of admission to their applicants in a way such that one group would enter after demonstrating their fitness by means of the subject matter examinations, and another group by means of special intelligence examinations, then the accumulation of data after a few years would almost certainly throw more light on the relative merits of the two types of examinations for this purpose than can possibly be obtained when both methods of selecting are not in operation by the same institution.

To conclude, let me express the opinion that the value of intelligence examinations is yet an open question, but that it seems entirely reasonable that they should be given a careful try-out by some such combination plan as that outlined above.

Office of Admissions, University of Pennsylvania

George Gailey Chambers

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VI

WHAT SHOULD BE THE CHARACTER OF AN ENGLISH TEST?

Time was when teachers and pupils were little annoyed by periodical tests. The little craft in which they were sailing moved gently over a pacific sea, the sails filled with whatever winds the gods were pleased to send. No final examinations came with equinoctial fury to disturb their course; they moved forward in the golden weather, hoping to anchor at last in the blest isles of somewhere—and occasionally they did. That was before the graded school system had come upon us with its new ideals. The master could hear the children read, and thru the clouds of chalk-dust could watch them demonstrate the Rule of Three; and when he felt that they had threshed over Ray's Third Part often enough, could put them into Ray's Higher. When a boy had discarded his copper-toed shoes or his boots with red leather tops, it was about time for him to go into the geography class; and when he reached that stage in life when he ceased to exercise a petty tyranny over the girls, and began to show a yearning for knighthood by the way he combed his hair and by certain awkward courtesies toward the sex, it went without saying that he was ready for Harvey's Grammar or Greene's Analysis.

I distinctly remember an autumn day sometime this side of the Civil War at a little country school when, instead of playing town-ball with the other boys at recess, I went to the other side of the playground where the teacher reclined on the grass, and approached him apprehensively to beg admission to the grammar class. I had heard the older pupils dissecting sentences: "Horses run—Birds fly—Fishes swim—"subject and predicate; I could do that!

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I was eager to show my hand. But the teacher told me as kindly as he could that I was not old enough. Age was the simple test, and the candidate flunked!

Other tests, however, have come to supersede the test of age. Steadily the graded system has insinuated itself into our school economy until it has its grip on every child. The wheels mesh into each other with relentless precision; the children go into a big hopper and come out at a chute—sometimes shooting up and sometimes down! In order to decide what direction a child shall take, the periodical test becomes an important part of the mechanism; so important, indeed, that at present it would seem to be a *sine qua non*. Granted, then, that the machine will not run without it, the question remains for our discussion, What shall be the character of the test?

Peculiarly difficult is this question when it comes to testing for efficiency in teaching English Literature. In the matter of arithmetic, give a room full of pupils ten problems fairly representative of the field to be covered, and it ought not to be a difficult thing to decide which of the aspirants are worthy of promotion. But when it comes to English, it is somewhat as if a priest should endeavor to arrange the people of his parish into a procession whose order of precedence is to be determined by degrees of spirituality. A mathematical test comes at the pupil with the query, What do you know? English appeals to the whole man; and the test should ask, What do you know? How keenly do you feel? How strong is your volition? Yet the customary test in literature consists almost entirely of an investigation into the status of the pupil's cognitive powers; and (*mirabile dictu!*) contents itself with hammering away relentlessly on the one cognitive spot of memory. This goes far toward making the whole affair anything but a pleasurable experience to all concerned. Most of us, doubtless, in taking a medical examination for life insurance, would resent having the doctor spend the entire time in a monotonous thumping over our right lung. We expect him to feel the pulse, take the blood pressure, measure

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the chest expansion, ascertain our height and weight, and investigate a number of things that give variety to the ordeal and render it a tolerable experience. Fifteen pounds' pressure on just one particular square inch of the body would be insufferable; but fifteen pounds on every square inch amounts to no pressure at all. Now the function of English is to bring its influence to bear on the three-fold man—intellect, emotion, and volition; and a satisfactory test must investigate the progress of the pupil along these three lines.

The system of testing in vogue at present seldom intrudes upon the child's glorious powers of finding out things for himself. True, now and then a question is employed that would appear at first blush to be a thought-provoking question; but a little investigation is likely to show that it involves the memory only. Take an illustration. Following are the first five questions from a list of ten used by a prominent high school in the east. They are representative of the entire list, and I believe are very similar in character to questions commonly used in high schools thruout the country:

1. Sketch the history of English drama before Shakespeare.
2. Give the main facts of Shakespeare's life.
3. Discuss the opening scene of *Julius Caesar*.
4. How does Cassius undertake to win Brutus over?
5. Contrast his bearing toward Brutus with that toward Casca.

The first two are manifestly nothing but tests of memory. The three others might test the power of thought were it not that in the previous lessons they have been exhaustively discussed in class, and the grade of the pupil will depend upon how well he remembers the discussion. Furthermore, the pupil who is ambitious to maintain a good standing, will strive to remember not the class discussion in general so much as the teacher's contribution in particular. Observe, then, how persistently this system which is ever looking forward to a memory test, encourages the pupil to lean upon the teacher rather than to rely upon his own powers.

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Not only in high school examinations do we find this subserviency to memory work, but everywhere the examiner adjusts the thumb-screws of inquisition to ascertain just how much his trembling victim can deliver of information remembered from the world of classroom gossip. Listen to the following list of questions on Literature submitted by the State of Ohio for high school certificates. This is one chosen entirely at random; they are all pretty much of a feather.

1. Sketch, in brief, the story of "The Lady of the Lake."
2. Outline the plot of Macbeth and quote five lines.
3. Name the best known work by each of the following: Dickens, Thackeray, Coleridge, Tennyson, Kingsley, Howells, Hawthorne, Thoreau, Victor Hugo, Lew Wallace.
4. Name the authors of the following: Kenilworth, The Ring and the Book, Snow Bound, We Are Seven, The Last of the Mohicans, Westward Ho, To a Skylark, Recessional, Tam O'Shanter, Il Penseroso.
5. What was the Brook Farm experiment?
6. Name the great essayists of England and America.
7. What histories take rank as literature? Why?
8. Name five American poets, giving a quotation from each.
9. If you had a hundred dollars to spend in good literature for your school, what would you buy? Be specific.
10. Give a sketch of Robert Burns and name five of his poems.

I make bold to say that a person who could answer these questions to the entire satisfaction of the examiners, might, nevertheless, be absolutely unfit to teach English. He might be wholly lacking in that fine appreciation of literary art which is so essential to the English classroom. What would you think of a physical director who, anxious to find out which boy in the school offers the greatest promise of winning in a running event at an interscholastic meet, should attempt to make a decision by submitting the following test?

1. In the act of running, which arm swings forward as the left foot advances?
2. In which lap of the mile did you experience the most difficulty in breathing?
3. Who won the championship last year?
4. Among the Ancients, who surpassed in running events, the Greeks or the Romans?
5. Has any evidence of "team-work" been found in records of events pulled off in the Coliseum at Rome?

(5 per cent will be taken off for each misspelled word.)

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This system is about as justifiable as the plan employed by a certain resourceful teacher over in another county, who, anxious to make a good showing before visitors, had a mutual understanding with her pupils that whenever she asked a question, those who knew the answer should raise the right hand; those who did not, should elevate the left. As long as a pupil did not get "right" and "left" confused in his mind, he stood a fair chance of being graded high by the visitors. The plan must have been very satisfactory to teacher and pupils; it had, of course, the incidental objection that the visiting examiners might be led into some wrong conclusions. But are we not just as certainly leading ourselves astray when we ask questions that appeal to the child's memory only, and give him an excellent grade because he has held his left hand high? We ask a number of questions on Burns's poems, and the pupil answers every question fully. Shall we then say we have scored a hundred per cent of efficiency, when possibly the pupil has not felt the first poetic thrill or received the slightest impulse to give felicitous expression to his own feelings?

The biggest thing we accomplish by this relentless bombarding of the citadel of memory is to impair seriously the efficiency of the nervous systems of pupils and teachers. This is not a quotation from Mr. Bok; it is simply the frank confession of an article in my own creed. The periodic mill of marking monotonous memory papers disqualifies the teacher from doing her best work for days to come; and the pupils are subjected to a strain of anxiety, lest they forget some jot or title that may be called for. It may not be amiss here to quote what Helen Keller has said regarding such examinations:

"But the examinations are the chief bug-bears of my college life. Altho I have faced them many times and cast them down and made them bite the dust, yet they rise again and menace me with pale looks, until, like Bob Acres, I feel my courage oozing out at my finger ends. The days before these ordeals take place are spent in cramming your mind with mystic formulae and indigestible dates—unpalatable diets, until you wish that books and science and you were buried in the depths of the sea.

At last the dread hour arrives, and you are a favored being, indeed, if you feel prepared, and are able at the right time to call to your standard

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thoughts that will aid you in that supreme effort. It happens too often that your trumpet call is unheeded. It is most perplexing and exasperating that just at the moment when you need your memory and a nice sense of discrimination, these faculties take to themselves wings and fly away. The facts you have garnered with such infinite trouble invariably fail you at a pinch.

Give a brief account of Huss and his work. Huss? Who was he and what did he do? The name looks strangely familiar. You ransack your budget of historic facts much as you would hunt for a bit of silk in a rag-bag. You are sure it is somewhere in your mind near the top—you saw it there the other day when you were looking up the beginnings of the Reformation. But where is it now? You fish out all manner of odds and ends of knowledge—revolutions, schisms, massacres, systems of government; but Huss—where is he? You are amazed at all the things you know which are not on the examination paper. In desperation you seize the budget and dump everything out, and there in the corner is your man, serenely brooding on his own private thought, unconscious of the catastrophe which he has wrought upon you.

Just then the proctor informs you that the time is up. With a feeling of intense disgust you kick the mass of rubbish into a corner and go home, your head full of revolutionary schemes to abolish the divine right of professors to ask questions without the consent of the questioned."

So much for Helen. Now for her teacher. Mrs. Macey says: "I am convinced that the time spent by the teacher in digging out of the child what she has put into him, for the sake of satisfying herself that it has taken root, is so much time thrown away." And I believe Mrs. Macey is right. We ought not to be so anxious about what we have put into the intellect, as about what vitality of feeling and willing has been germinated as a result of the putting in. There is something vastly more significant than the child's ability to stand and deliver a definition from the dictionary, and that is to feel a thing so deeply as to be possessed with the impulse to tell. I would rather have my boy become a Keats with intensity of feeling or an Edison with creative will, than to be a whole British Museum filled with the memories of a dead world. Train the pupil's three-fold nature, and set before him an examination that shall not merely make demands upon his memory, but that shall stir his emotions and make him want to tell something, and examinations will be divested of their traditional terrors—may even become pleasurable experiences.

There are, then, three things which a test of efficiency

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should investigate: (1) what the pupil knows; (2) what feelings are experienced from this knowledge; and (3) how strongly he is moved to act. Let us now turn our attention to a brief consideration of these three things.

Since we must, in the first place, test for what the pupil knows, it will be understood that we do not object to giving memory a prominent place in the program. It is fundamental. There can be no worthy feeling or consequent willing unless there be antecedent provocative knowledge. What we do object to strenuously is the practise of inviting the human soul to the drama of life, and then not being content with giving memory a front seat, give it every seat in the house and tell emotion and will to stand if they can find room. Of course, we must never forget that the training of the memory is a large and important field. The vocabulary must be developed in a vital way; the intellect must be enriched by familiarity with many interesting and wholesome stories from fiction and history; and the spirit of the child must come to have fellowship with the rarest souls that have challenged the admiration of the world. Without doubt this is the supreme thing to be attended to in the grades; but when the youth enters the high school, the strengthening and deepening of the emotions should have no mean place in the program. Nothing but a weak, flabby will is to be expected where the emotions are allowed to lie dormant. We must be sure that the pupil feels deeply concerning the information he acquires. Love, anger, resentment, admiration, veneration, scorn, pleasure, delight, sorrow, sympathy—it's a long array that brings a delightful variety to the English teacher's work. Even such an intellectual thing as Burke's Speech on Conciliation should be presented as an artistic masterpiece built in the form of a splendid temple of Peace, to waken a genuine admiration in the soul of the reader.

But what sort of test can be employed that shall enable us to decide definitely concerning the status and growth of the feelings? In reading Macbeth where the Thane returns from the slaughter of Duncan, a murderer of the black-

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est type, unworthy to be the companion of any lady, and Lady Macbeth endeavors to reassure his troubled spirit by rushing to him and calling him "My husband!" how shall we discover whether the pupil's emotions are properly stirred by the word "husband?" There is no other place in all literature where the word has just the same meaning as it has there. We must discover in some way whether the youth is getting that marvelous instrument of his emotions in tune so that it will reproduce the music of the master, else we can have no assurance that he will ever of his own volition "take up the harp of life and smite on all the chords with might."

A study of figures of speech affords a magnificent opportunity to cultivate the feelings. The pupil is found wrestling with a subject concerning which he knows but little, and the figure of speech, by comparing the unknown thing with something already familiar to his experience, enables him to have adequate feeling toward the unknown. It is as if in strolling along the street of a strange city, he should suddenly be delighted to come face to face with an old acquaintance. The figure of speech should give one a feeling not dissimilar to that which a Scotch Highlander might be expected to have if in traveling thru an African jungle he should chance to come upon a man wearing the plaid of his own clan. It is well, therefore, to test the pupil's ability to feel with the author.

I know of no better way to make such a test than to submit to the class a piece of literature which they have not seen or studied, but which is similar in nature to what they have been working upon, and discover how far they are able to get the author's thought and feeling. On one occasion I had a class that had been reading *Evangeline*. We had endeavored to find some of the beauties of thought and expression, and to assist the poet by giving the imagination some freedom of rein. On the day for testing, I had written upon the board the following lines from the similar poem of *Miles Standish's Courtship*, describing Alden's journey thru the wood on his way to speak to Priscilla in

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behalf of his captain. Without any discussion whatever, I asked the pupils to see what they could get from the lines in the way of enjoyment, and tell it on paper in as good English as they could command. Here are the lines:

"So thru the Plymouth woods John Alden went on his errand;
Crossing the brook at the ford, where it brawled over pebble and shallow,
Gathering, still as he went, the Mayflowers blooming around him,
Fragrant, filling the air with a strange and wonderful sweetness,
Children lost in the woods, and covered with leaves in their slumber.
'Puritan flowers,' he said, 'and the type of Puritan maidens,
Modest and simple and sweet, the very type of Priscilla:
So I will take them to her; to Priscilla, the Mayflower of Plymouth.
Modest and simple and sweet, as a parting gift will I take them;
Breathing their silent farewells, as they fade and wither and perish,
Soon to be thrown away as is the heart of the giver.'
So thru the Plymouth woods John Alden went on his errand;
Came to an open space, and saw the disk of the ocean,
Sailless, sombre and cold with the comfortless breath of the ocean."

Listen now to a few lines chosen from one of the papers handed in that day. You will not inspect the structure of sentences too critically when you understand that only five years before, the boy who was being tested had never been outside of Russia.

* * * "'and saw the disk of the ocean.' By this phrase is brought a beautiful view to the reader. Behind are the woodlands teeming with vegetation, and in front the sea, the noises of which are vibrated to the woods and re-echoed back and forth from tree to tree.

* * * 'and covered with leaves in their slumber.' The above phrase brings to us a picture of security; the flowers are sleeping as children, with the giant trees as guards and the music of the wind blowing thru the trees as lullaby songs."

When I read this boy's production, I confess to being disappointed at his not suspecting that Longfellow in speaking of the Mayflowers hidden under the leaves had in mind the old story of the Babes in the Wood; but it was not an unmixed disappointment which I felt. Was it not clear to me that the lad had really heard the music of Longfellow, that he had of his own volition added some imaginary details, and that he had given voice to his own feelings in a fairly satisfactory way?

In conclusion, permit me to sum up my ideas regarding the character of a test in English. First, the test may

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properly be, and ought to be, with limitations, a test of the memory; but certainly it ought to be something more than that. To employ merely a memoriter system is like teaching vocal music to a youngster by training him until he can bawl out his *do*, *re*, *mi*, *fa*, *sol*, with explosive energy, or even show a certain cleverness in stumbling along after a tune by watching the score, all the while making nothing but noise. Secondly, it should find out something about the pupil's powers of generalization. When certain principles have been taught him in connection with a classic, how much ability does he have to apply those principles to some other classic? In studying Julius Caesar, if he has incidentally been taught, for example, that the first scene has a definite purpose, why not test him with the opening scene of Coriolanus? Give him the larger part of a recitation bell to study the scene, and then ask him to write what he thinks about it. Will he saunter with pleasure into the pathway of Shakespeare's purpose, or will he stupidly wait for the teacher to get behind and push him into it? Thirdly, the test should offer the pupil an original problem which shall determine approximately the wealth of his spiritual storehouse; for however splendid a thing it may be to train the youth to write a business letter in acceptable form, is it not true after all that the supreme obligation resting upon the twentieth century teacher of literature is to act as a check on the spirit of commercialism, an influence that is everywhere deadening the finer sensibilities by stimulating the desire for self-advancement?

W. C. Sayrs

Cincinnati, Ohio

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VII

DISCUSSIONS

THE REGISTRAR'S OFFICE AS A BAROMETER OF EDUCATIONAL TENDENCIES[1]

The future historian of American higher education will be imprest by the development of administrative organization and administrative technique. In a short generation American universities and larger colleges have grown from one man concerns, which Presidents handled without assistance and often without advice, to large and complicated enterprises. In the same period, one administrative function after another has been delegated to special officers—deans, secretaries, comptrollers, directors, bursars, and registrars. An administrative hierarchy has grown up which has no counterpart in the university organization of any other country. Practically all of these offices are new, but we are here primarily concerned with the evolution of the task of the registrar's office. It seems to me that there have been three well-defined steps in its upward progress. Into the third phase a few registrars' offices are just now entering.

In the beginning, the registrar's office was concerned with the simplest kind of recording. The office was generally treated—and in many institutions it is still treated—as an adjunct to the president's office, or of a dean's. Sometimes the duties of the registrar were performed by an inexperienced clerk. Sometimes they constituted a kind of supererogatory task for some professor whose schedule was not heavy and whose salary might by this device be increased.

The next stage in the evolution of the office shows it as a large clerical undertaking, demanding the full time of a

[1] Address before the Association of Collegiate Registrars, Washington, D. C., April 13th, 1920.

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trained man and several assistants. My examination of a large number of colleges and universities leads me to think that this is pretty generally the present status of it. The registrar of the second stage is regarded by his academic colleagues as an animated reference work, rather than as a fellow legislator of equal prerogatives and with an equally valuable experience. It is assumed that because his contacts with students are either business contacts or disciplinary contacts, his knowledge of students is superficial and without significance in the determination of those subtle relationships between students and institutions of learning that occupy so large a fraction of the time of faculties. His views on educational policies are not sought, because his office is not considered to be an educational office. It is looked upon as a mere mechanism for promoting academic efficiency. In the opinion of those who hold this view, the registrar is to a college what a bookkeeper is to a business, a necessary adjunct, but not generally taken into the counsels of the firm.

The reasons for this rating of the registrar and his contributions are not far to seek. They are based on the fact that the office has been evolving. It has not yet found its place. No two registrars' offices are alike. No two even perform identical functions (at least, in my experience). Moreover, registrars are practically all self-trained. Who can teach a registrar how to be a registrar? There is no school, no textbook, no common body of knowledge, no guide except the practise of his predecessor and the clamorous and constantly increasing demands of his institution. Now this lack of professional status, this absence of orthodoxy, is the opportunity of the superior man or woman. I am facing at this moment several men and women who have made the post of registrar one of the commanding posts in their respective institutions. That is the way a profession is made. It is first incarnated in a few self-taught individuals. Then gradually their experience is reduced to record. A definite body of knowledge is built up, which any industrious and fairly intelligent stu-

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dent can master. A teachable technique is evolved. Then the thing is ready for mass propagation. The profession of being a registrar has not generally reached this final stage as yet. Consequently the office has not got the recognition it deserves.

One feature of the registrar's office of today as I have observed it, surely retards its development as a genuine professional division of the university. There is a plethora of recording. Every normal and abnormal movement of the student is made a matter of record. There are duplicates and triplicates and double entries, pink slips and blue cards and yellow envelopes. In few cases is the registrar to blame. Most registrars with whom I am acquainted have invented ingenious labor-saving devices which prevent them from being interred beneath the rising drifts of forms imposed upon their offices by the demands of faculties or the academic regulations of the institution. Where forms have multiplied, the registrar's office runs the danger of being little else than a clerical undertaking. Indeed, the multiplication of forms constitutes a double menace. It not only threatens the registrar's office, but it threatens the vitality of university education. If I were asked to identify the most serious defect of American higher education, I should say unhesitatingly that it is the system of paper credits. As this system has developed in the last quarter century, it deals almost wholly with time spent and amounts covered, that is, with the externals of educational progress. It registers only incidentally and indirectly the development of human capacity and the growth of character, which are the purposes of education. This tendency to measure education in purely quantitative terms has undoubtedly caused the expansion of the registrar's office to its present respectable proportions.

This brings me back again to my thesis. The present state in the development of the registrar's office is its critical period. All those who have studied university administration seriously wish to see two events happen. They wish to see the registrar's office everywhere take its proper

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place as a vitalizing and constructive force in university economy. And they desire the general recognition of the registrar as a professional specialist. The second will follow as a natural consequence of the first. How are you going to bring these things to pass? First, I believe, by simplifying the routine of the office. After all, there are not so very many personal and disciplinary facts that an institution needs to know about an individual student. There is a standing committee of the United States Senate on the Disposal of Useless Papers. Such a committee would not be an anomaly in any university I have ever investigated. (It could be appropriately headed by the registrar—who would doubtless cheerfully lend his services.) The routine recording carried on in nearly every registrar's office could be reduced one-third with positive benefit to the institution.

But I am not advocating a decrease in the magnitude of the registrar's functions. Quite the reverse. The office should be freed of unnecessary, dead weight routine in order to devote its resources to the constructive record of the institution's educational operations. A college or university is an immense biological experiment station. It impounds for fixt periods picked specimens of the community's most sensitive and variable fauna. It subjects them to certain definite and controlled stimuli in an artificial environment. The environment is substantially the same for all. Different stimuli are applied to different groups. If the experiment station is going to work purposefully toward the improvement of the species, it must note the effect of every type of stimulus on every group treated.

The record of the results of collegiate education has been until recently surprisingly meager and of surprizingly little influence in the determination of educational policies. On what facts, for example, has the decision of institutions to abandon the Latin requirement been based? Why do some colleges require mathematics for graduation and others not? What subjects have proved by the experience of several generations to be the best preparation for the study

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of law? What are the differences in academic standing and in ultimate success in life between those who specialize early and those who scatter as much as the regulations permit? Are there variations between the academic standings of those who have taken one group of subjects in secondary schools and those who have taken another, between those who ranked high in secondary schools and those who do not? How do the results of Section A of English I conducted by Professor X compare over a term of years with those of Section B, conducted by Instructor Y? Similar questions might be asked by the score. They all belong to the record that every college should keep, if it is to perform its great experiment intelligently and with increasing precision. The supreme function of the registrar's office is, I believe, to prepare this record continuously and continuously to interpret it.

But it is not only such questions as those I have just mentioned that the registrar's office should be able to answer. The institution itself is related to a larger organism, the community, often the state. There should be no maladjustment between its offerings and the educational needs of the community. Definite means of keeping posted as to these needs and of estimating the closeness of the articulation between the institution and its community lie ready to the registrar's hand. In fact, no other officer except the president is so well able to perform this service.

There is also a third factor which has a profound bearing on educational practise, namely, the financial resources of the institution. It is amazing how few institutions know the cost of any specific part of the educational process. The principal reason is the complete lack of contact between the business office and the registrar's office. The educational policy can never be wholly separated from the financial resources. On the other hand, the educational statistics which are only available in the office of the registrar, must be the basis of the fiscal policy, if this policy is to be intelligent. Shall the institution continue to offer a course in mining engineering, for example, from which the aver-

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age number of graduates is four a year? Is the return worth the outlay? Before making decision the administration ought to find out the cost per unit of instruction and compare this with the unit costs in those other subjects for which the money might be spent. This is but one example of a host of problems which can only be solved with a full knowledge of both the educational and the financial facts involved. It should be the future function of the registrar, as the chief custodian of important educational data to put himself in a position to make the educational interpretations of these combined educational and financial phenomena.

Now, I am well aware that a number of registrar's offices are already doing all of these things that I have mentioned. They are the pioneers who have pointed the way to a scientific conception of collegiate education. And incidentally they have wrought out a new and highly technical profession. The registrar under the force of their example is becoming something more than a recorder. He is a creator of vital statistics, an educational diagnostician. If he fulfils this function, no other officer of the university is more important than he. No other officer's opinion is entitled to greater weight in the formulation of university policies. His office is truly a barometer of educational tendencies.

SAMUEL P. CAPEN
AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

CONTINUATION SCHOOL LAW AND THE EMPLOYER[1]

The new Continuation School Law for the State of New York is of great interest to all employers, as well as being of vital concern to the City of New York and its educational system. It may be paradoxically stated that the chief problem of the school of today is the boy or the girl who is not in school, rather than those children who are under our immediate control and supervision. The

[1] Revised from an address made before the meeting of the New York Chapter of the National Association of Corporation Training, September 30, 1920.

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employer who did not follow up the output of his establishment would be lacking either in courage or sagacity; yet that has been the attitude of our school system. Great armies of children pass thru our schools and disappear into industrial or commercial life without any serious effort being made by the school authorities to determine their fitness for entrance into such labor, or the ultimate success attained because of the training received in the schools.

Much may be said on the general problem of continuation schools; the legislation, financial provision, scheme of organization, courses of study, training of teachers, and so forth, but employers to whom this discussion is especially addressed will wish to know how the administration of the continuation schools will affect the conduct of their business during the coming year. The following are the main provisions of the new statute in New York:

Section 601, Paragraph a:

"Part-time or continuation schools shall be established in cities and school districts having a population of five thousand or more inhabitants. The board of education of each city and of each such school district in which there are twenty or more minors above the age of fourteen years and below the age of eighteen years, who are not in regular attendance upon instruction, shall establish and maintain part-time or continuation schools or classes, in which such minor shall receive instruction; such schools or classes may be established in public school buildings, in other buildings especially adapted for their operation, in manufacturing or mercantile establishments, and in factories. Such schools or classes, wherever they are established or maintained, shall be under the control and management of the board of education and shall be a part of the public school system of the city or district which maintains them. Courses of study in private or parochial part-time or continuation schools or classes which meet the requirements of the statutes and the regulations prescribed thereunder may be approved by the Commissioner of Education, and when thus ap-

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proved, attendance thereon shall be accepted for that required under this article."

Section 601, Paragraph b:

"Such part-time or continuation schools or classes shall be maintained each year during the full period of time which the public schools of a city or district are in session. The sessions of such part-time or continuation schools or classes shall be on the regular school days and for as many hours between the hours of eight o'clock forenoon and five o'clock afternoon as shall be necessary to provide the required instruction for such minors who reside in said city or district."

Under this law the Board of Education has adopted regulations to bring into the continuation schools within the next five years the 200,000 young people to whom the law applies. You will note that during the school year 1920–1921, all minors under seventeen years of age who have not completed the elementary school course will be required to attend.

The Board of Education has adopted the following rules and regulations governing the attendance of minors employed or living in the City of New York, who are subject to the provisions of the part-time or continuation school law, and the same were adopted pursuant to the provisions of Article 22 of the Education Law and the regulations of the Regents of the University of the State of New York duly adopted thereunder:

1. All minors between the ages of 14 and 18, residing in the City of New York, or employed in said New York City, if residing in a district where part-time or continuation schools are maintained, who are not in attendance upon the regular full-time schools and not otherwise exempt, shall be required to attend part-time or continuation schools for four hours for each week which such school is in session as hereinafter provided.

2. The attendance shall be upon such days and at such hours as the Superintendent of Schools may direct in accordance with the law and regulations.

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3. Any minor who has commenced attendance upon such part-time or continuation school shall continue thereon until such minor reaches the age of 18, unless excused for some lawful reason.

4. The attendance of such minors is hereby required as follows:

a. On and after September 1, 1920, all such minors between the ages of *15 and 17* who have not completed the course of the elementary school.

b. On and after September 1, 1921, all such minors between the ages of *15 and 18* who have not completed the course of the elementary school.

c. On and after September 1, 1922, all such minors between the ages of *15 and 18* who have not completed the course of the elementary school, together with all such minors under 15 who have completed the course of the elementary school.

d. On and after September 1, 1923, all such minors between the ages of *15 and 18* who have not been graduated from the elementary school, together with all such minors *under 16* who have completed the course of the elementary school.

e. On and after September 1, 1924, all such minors between the ages of *15 and 18* not graduated from an elementary school, together with all such minors *under 18* who have completed the course of the elementary school.

In carrying out the intent of the law, it has been necessary for the Board to consider a five year program. This includes an enormous housing and teacher-training problem. It can readily be seen that a complete school system must be established that will provide instruction for young people between the ages of 14 and 18 years, in all subjects suitable to the capacity of students who have left school in grades from the 7A to the last year of high school. In accordance with the spirit of the law, facilities for vocational education must be provided to supplement all occupations in New York City in which young workers find employment in considerable number. This involves a problem

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of equipment and vocational instruction on a large scale. It is only with the cooperation of all interested factors, parents, labor organizations, the employer and the child himself, that this tremendous problem can be satisfactorily solved.

Now, the question naturally arises, what are we to do with the children sent to us for a minimum of four hours and maximum of eight hours a week? Happily the experience of the schools in the public school system training for occupations and schools established by corporations have made the answer easy.

There are three large groups of children who come to continuation schools, besides girls who remain at home. The first group consists of those who are in a blind alley or uncongenial job, but who do not know what type of work to take up, nor can the school people determine immediately what to recommend. The second group consists of persons who are working at something they do not desire to follow up, but are not ready to go into the work which they have definitely decided upon, because of immaturity or lack of opportunity. The third group consists of persons who are working at some uncongenial occupation which they feel confident will constitute their life work and will need simply to be given training supplementary to their occupation. This last group presents the smallest difficulty and has been well solved in the extension training courses which have long been given in the public evening schools, the continuation schools, and the corporation schools. The first group, however,—those who are at work at something which they know they do not want and who do not know what work to take up—constitutes not only the largest number but also the most serious educational problem. However, our experience in the prevocational schools has shown the possibility of vocational counseling and the selection of a career by the use of diversified courses of study. Our trade test rooms also constitute a valuable method for determining aptitudes. Various psychological and trade tests are likewise used.

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The first step, therefore, with this group, is to determine by tests or by opportunities with diversified courses, the type of work best fitted for the particular student. The second step, strange as it may seem, is not specific for the particular job, because the time, four hours a week, is too short for a vocational course. The third step is to place the child in an establishment offering opportunities along the line of the occupation tentatively selected. If the student makes a good supplementary training along the chosen occupation as given and the child passes from Group I to Group III, he receives extension training along the lines of the corporation schools. The second group, as far as possible, is given such preparatory training as can be given in a limited time and an early opportunity for placement is looked for. In addition to the vocational courses indicated above, the law requires courses in American history, industrial history, civics, economics and essential features of the laws relating to industries. Altho not required, we invariably include instruction in English and arithmetic.

Questions of especial interest are concerned with how the employer is to be considered, with what is the status of the schools connected with establishments. It should be said as emphatically as possible that, in the administration of the law, the lightest possible burden will be placed upon the employer. In enforcing the law, wherever possible, we endeavor to reach the pupil thru the home. Instructions have been issued by the Superintendent that only as a last resort will the employer be troubled. Of course, the provision of the law requires that any firm or corporation that refuses to comply with the provisions of the act may be fined not less than $25 nor more than $100, or imprisonment for not less than five nor more than ten days; but as there is a penalty for the parent who may be more responsible than is the employer for any violation of the provisions of the statute, we shall endeavor to enforce the law thru the parent or guardian. It may be said in passing that the provision for the return of the employment certificate within three days after the termination of employment is not in

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force, because of the failure of the law to provide for the issuance of employment certificates for the group between 16 and 18.

The existing classes conducted in department stores and other shops in cooperation with the Board of Education do not in all respects conform to the requirements of the law. However, until the matter is finally adjusted, these classes may continue as they have done in previous years. Where the work is mainly of the trade extension type that is supplementary to the occupation in which the pupil is engaged, it will be necessary to include in the course of instruction only those subjects already enumerated; namely, American history, industrial history, civics, and economics. Where, however, the occupation in which the child is engaged is of the nature of a blind alley job, the curriculum of the corporation school must make provision for a diversified course of study along prevocational lines. Any changes affecting the corporation schools will be made with due regard for existing industrial conditions.

In conclusion, it should be noted that Morris E. Siegel, Director of Continuation Schools, will be more than anxious to advise and assist employers with reference to any difficulties than may be experienced. Our sole desire in putting the statute into effect is to do so, so as to inflict upon those affected the least possible inconvenience or hardship.

WILLIAM L. ETTINGER

OFFICE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
NEW YORK CITY

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VIII

REVIEWS

Virginia Public Schools—Education Commission's Report to the Assembly of Virginia. Survey Staff's Report to the Education Commission. Vol. VII of the Educational Survey Series. World Book Company, 1920. 400 p.

The volume under review constitutes the general report on what is probably the most intensive state educational survey that has yet been made. It was conducted under the direction and management of Dr. Alexander J. Inglis, of Harvard University, by ten division specialists, mostly from outside the state, and twenty-two special collaborators and field workers, chosen from among the educators of Virginia. The Education Commission and the Survey Staff received further assistance from nine specialists in educational and sociological work, acting in an advisory capacity, and from a large number of volunteer workers, who were specially trained by the Survey Staff for various phases of the field work.

The report of the Survey Staff is embodied in twenty-one chapters covering every important branch of educational organization and functional activity. To these chapters are added one hundred and twenty-four statistical tables representing the factual basis of the report. The director has departed from the customary form in segregating these tables in an appendix. This departure is of advantage to the layman who is interested mainly in arriving quickly at the most significant facts, relations, interpretations and recommendations, and cares little for statistical tables. It also suits the convenience of the statistical expert, who can quickly infer the conclusions and recommendations by merely learning the tables,—or that of the student of education, who will rely mainly on the expert analyses and discussions in the body of the report, and will

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consult the tables only rarely, when he desires the detailed figures on some phases of the work in which he is especially interested.

The book will be of particular interest to those who are concerned in the administration and management of rural schools, in the problems of negro education, or in the reorganization and reconstruction of defective state and county systems of school control.

The 7–4 grade elementary and high school organization, which is universal in Virginia, outside of a few cities, is carefully analyzed, and compared with the 8–4 and 6–3–3 systems of elementary and high schools elsewhere; and the 6–3–3 system is recommended for Virginia.

The appalling inefficiency of the one-room rural school is set forth in Chapter VI, The Results of Instruction Measured, and in Chapters II, III, IV, and V, treating of length of term, enrolment and attendance, progress of pupils thru the grades, and the elementary curriculum. The findings set forth in these chapters, even to those whose delusions concerning the oft-alleged inspiring quality of the one-room school have long been dispelled, are nothing less than sensational. They constitute an indictment of "the little red school house," which leaves it no excuse for existing in any district where consolidation or centralization is feasible. Where consolidation is not possible, the report makes perfectly clear the state's duty to provide aid for improving these schools to the point where they can do something that is really effective. Furthermore, it points out the ways and indicates the means.

One-room schools are common, in many of our states, wherein conditions are little better than in those described in Virginia. The one-room school presents a social and economic problem that is nation-wide, and that must be solved. Such pitiless publicity as would be brought about by a wide circulation of this report should clear the ground for remedial measures in every state where such schools exist.

The Education Commission's recommendations, pp. 18–

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51, include definite proposals for constitutional and legislative changes, in order that the recommendations of the Survey Staff may be put into effect. These involve an entire reconstruction of the state and county systems of school control, administration, and finance. The Commission has wisely limited its proposals to what is actually feasible.

The entire report is clear, readable, and quantitatively specific, and is characterized by the sanity of its judgments and the constructive nature of its recommendations.

GEORGE R. TWISS

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY,
COLUMBUS, OHIO

The classroom teacher at work in American schools—By GEORGE DRAYTON STRAYER and N. L. ENGELHARDT. American Book Company. 1920. 400 p.

The present reviewer, noting the alluring title of *The classroom teacher at work in American schools* took up the book with the expectation of finding within its covers a detailed discussion of the practise of progressive American teachers in respect to their methods of handling the various branches of instruction and their policies in the management of their classes. But there is not a great deal of attention given to actual classroom work. The book deals mainly with matters concerning the organization and administration of an educational system, the supervision of teaching, the measurement of school work, mental tests, the professional improvement of teachers, school plants and appliances, the health of pupils, the relation of the teacher to the community, and so on. It is a brief, popular, non-technical survey of the predominant tendencies in the administrative aspects of American education. It is the kind of book that a visitor from the Old World who is unfamiliar with our educational system should read in order that he might get a glimpse of how our schools are organized and administered, and what aspects of educational work are thought to be of primary importance. It is such a book, too, as should be read by a teacher who is ignorant of the

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machinery of the system of which she is a part. It is not a book that a teacher who wishes to acquire improved methods in teaching and managing her pupils would profit greatly by reading.

The names of the authors are sufficient guarantee that the book presents an up-to-date view of how our schools should be administered. As luck would have it, the only out-of-date discussion concerns Types of Teaching, which is the very thing that a reader, judging by the title of the book, would expect to be handled in a modern fashion. On pages 89 and 90 an effort is made to distinguish between "thinking" and "reasoning" and between the "inductive" and the "deductive" types of reasoning and of teaching. There was a time when educational books devoted a good deal of space to this sort of discussion, but it went out of fashion years ago because teachers were not interested in it and did not gain much, if anything, of value from it. Fortunately, there is not much of it in the *The classroom teacher*.

The reader will feel that the authors are at their best when they discuss administrative and supervisory problems. Their handling of matters of actual teaching seems rather commonplace. However, if the book falls into the hands of teachers who have had no study whatever of any phase of educational work and no experience in actual teaching, then even the chapter on Types of Teaching may prove illuminating and helpful. One can not help but wonder, tho, whether there is today any teacher in any school system such as is described in this book who is entirely ignorant of educational psychology and methods of teaching and class management.

The book is presented in a simple, straight-forward style and there are no extreme positions taken on any debatable educational question. The book might be regarded as conservatively progressive. It does not go as far in recommending radical reforms in American educational procedure as some recent books do, and as some school systems have already entered upon. It does, however, present the views

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which are held by the majority of experienced and studious educational men and women in our country.

One who is familiar with the books that Professor Strayer has written, either as sole or as joint author, will find many familiar paragraphs in this book. It might, perhaps, be regarded as a sort of epitome, simply phrased for classroom teachers, of other volumes by the same authors, especially by Professor Strayer. It seems quite appropriate that these authors should seek to have some of the views which they have presented more technically and in greater detail in other books put in a form so that they can be read by teachers who never would even hear of the more elaborate and specialized treatises.

It should be added that at the end of each chapter there are questions which will assist the teacher in appreciating and applying the principles developed. There is also at the close of each chapter a brief list of the best books of reference. These books are referred to by title and without citation of chapter or page, which the reviewer thinks is of little practical value, for the reason that hardly one of the books named is devoted entirely to a discussion of the problem considered in the chapter to which it is appended. A teacher who would read any of these books as wholes in order to get further light upon the problem discussed in any chapter would do more traveling in the byways than along the main road; and if he attempted to read all the books he would be overwhelmed.

This is the first volume in the American Education Series, the prospectus of which arouses high expectations. The title of the Series is most excellent, and the plan as sketched by the general editor is most comprehensive; but when one reads *The classroom teacher at work in American schools* he wonders what there will be left for treatment in the remaining volumes of the Series, for the reason that this volume discusses practically all phases of American education. It touches upon each of the fields covered in a half-dozen courses in education offered in colleges and universities. It may be the plan of the editor to have the suc-

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ceeding volumes take up topics treated in this first volume and work them out in detail, which would be of real service to all who are engaged in educational work, either as administrators, as investigators, or as classroom teachers.

M. V. O'Shea

The University of Wisconsin,
Madison, Wis.

Our public schools—By Oscar T. Corson. American Book Company. 1920. 283 p.

In *Our public schools*, Dr. O. T. Corson has embodied the practical suggestions of an experienced and successful teacher and school superintendent. He makes plain the importance of our school system in developing American ideals. While he is ready to defend both the school and the teacher, he shows the value of just and kind criticism. His characterization of the successful teacher will touch a sympathetic chord with every experienced teacher. Very valuable suggestions are made for the new teacher and definite instructions for professional development seem to be written into every line

Our public schools is not written from a theoretical standpoint, contains nothing visionary, does not lay down a philosophy of education, except as every-day, common-sense experience in the schoolroom dictates. It is full of sympathy and encouragement and inspiration for the worker in the schoolroom. It does not satisfy itself with a consideration of the teacher as the chief agency in making a good school, but thru the teacher reaches out for the co-operation of pupils and parents and the arousing of a healthy public school sentiment. Neither does the book aim alone at academic development. It thinks beyond the mental activities to the environment, disposition, temperament and moral well-being of pupils. The school is not considered as an institution which must be dealt with for its own sake, but as an institution for the establishment of efficient and patriotic citizenship. The individual must be made strong, moral and courageous in order that the body politic may be strong, moral and courageous.

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Dr. Corson evidently believes in the democracy of the public school as one of the safeguards of present civilization; for he expresses in no uncertain manner an emphasis upon the training in fundamental virtues which the public school gives as a basis for teaching people to live together and to come into a capacity to live out the Golden Rule.

The book will be of absorbing interest and of practical value to teachers. At the same time it will furnish a rich field of information for the general reader.

W. W. Boyd

Western College,
Oxford, Ohio

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IX

NOTES AND NEWS

A survey of educational surveys

The educational survey has come to stay. Nothing is more characteristic of the present day tendencies in education. Its permanence is attested by the subsidence of the reactionary and the enthusiast alike. We no longer hear of the destruction of our glorious public system, or, on the other hand, of the arrival of the educational millenium, thru the introduction of school surveys. This scientific method of investigating our school systems is now taken for granted and raises little comment of either sort.

"Surveys" and statistics have been in use for forty years, but until the twentieth century they have possessed little clearness and accuracy, and it remained for the last decade to apply to their various phases the same general technique and approximately the same precision as that long since demanded by the physical and biological sciences. Quantitative, unambiguous statements are now sought and secured in the data of attendance, retardation, elimination, classroom efficiency, expenditures, buildings, equipment, and other features, and school officers and patrons are enabled to comprehend with definiteness the absolute as well as the relative efficiency of their educational systems.

About two hundred surveys have been made in the United States, and this method of educational stock-taking is now being extended to Canada and various other countries. As one may learn from the present issue of the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, even Hawaii has been carefully surveyed. And not only have the schools of a city or of an entire state, county, or country been appraised in this way, but surveys have been made of colleges and universities, of special subjects, and of the educational facilities

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of various Christian denominations. Next month we expect to recount an interesting survey that has been made of all religious forces and equipment in the United States.

Under these circumstances a catalog of the surveys undertaken up to date should be of considerable value to all interested in education. Such a timely account has been given us by the Bureau of Education in its *List of references on educational surveys* (Library Leaflet, No. 12), which has recently appeared. In this brief bulletin are recorded the dozen surveys made prior to 1910, the two score of articles and publications on general aspects of the subject, and an inventory of all surveys arranged according to states. All, save half a dozen of the states, have had surveys made of their schools in one or more cities or in the commonwealth as a whole; and some, like Colorado, Indiana, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, have been especially favored by the surveyors. Very often, however, and for obvious reasons, the survey team has been chosen from another state, from the United States Bureau of Education, or from a prominent educational institution located at a distance, altho Superintendent Don C. Bliss has shown in the REVIEW this month that surveys can at times be made to best advantage by the locality itself. Certainly these self-surveys are at present rapidly increasing in frequency and value.

Perhaps the earliest school survey upon the modern basis was that of East Orange, made by Dr. Ernest Carroll Moore in 1911, altho a number of others of importance were begun about the same time. In this year, for example, the ill-fated survey of the New York City schools was started under Professor Hanus and his staff. Probably the most elaborate survey that has yet been undertaken was that of Cleveland. It was directed by the Russell Sage Foundation, and the results were issued in twenty-three sectional reports written during 1915–17 by prominent specialists in the various fields and edited by Dr. Leonard P. Ayres. A noteworthy contribution to survey literature also by Dr. Ayres is found in An Index Number for State School

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systems, issued last spring as a bulletin of the same Foundation. It has provoked more comment and is likely to prove more productive of improvement and effort in school circles than the report of any other survey, altho it undertakes to estimate the order of educational achievement in the several states on the basis of a limited number of factors, relating for the most part to attendance, finances, and proportionate amount of secondary education. Outside of the work of the various foundations, the great bulk of the surveys at the present time is being carried by the Bureau of Education or by survey staffs from the large professional schools of Education, especially Teachers College of Columbia University. Some of the most recent of those surveys may well be considered here in detail. An endeavor has been made to select such surveys as will best represent the various types.

The Memphis school survey

The complete report of the survey of the public school system of Memphis, Tennessee, has now been issued by the United States Bureau of Education. Besides the specialists of the Bureau, the commission included Dr. Thomas Alexander of the Peabody College and Mrs. Ada Van Stone Harris of the University of Pittsburgh for the elementary work, and Professor George R. Twiss of the Ohio State University on the secondary side. The director of the survey was Dr. Frank F. Bunker, Specialist in City School Systems, Bureau of Education. The report is issued for general circulation in seven separate parts, which are described and evaluated below.

In Part I, the first chapter deals with an industrial and social study of Memphis. It shows the nature and extent of the educational needs of the city, and raises questions as to what is and what ought to be in Memphis. These questions are answered in the chapters that follow. Chapter II makes an analysis of the conditions connected with school organization, supervision, and finance. The commission finds that the schools are unfavorably affected by

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politics, due to an incorrect type of organization; that the supervising force is inadequate; that the schools are ineffectively supervised and underfinanced; and that teachers are underpaid and insufficiently trained. A new organization and policy are outlined and recommended. Chapter III shows a lamentable shortage of building accommodations and equipment and outlines a building program to solve the problem. It advocates for Memphis the "work-study-play" plan that has already proved successful in some thirty or forty cities. The cost of providing adequate accommodations according to this plan is compared with that entailed under the usual plan, and the comparison is illustrated by reference to one school chosen as an example. Reports on conditions in existing buildings follow. This chapter should be very suggestive and helpful to school officials in cities where the schools are congested and new buildings are needed.

Of Part II, Chapter I covers methods of teaching in elementary education as far as they were observed, with constructive recommendations for improvement of both curriculum and methods. It includes results of the standard tests and comparisons of records with those of other school systems. The recommendations that follow are decidedly progressive. Chapter II deals with high schools. It covers all phases of their administration, instruction, and equipment, and makes specific recommendations for improvement in many of these phases. The discussion of the curriculum embodies a serious attempt at a concise statement of modern curriculum philosophy as it applies to high schools, and should be of interest to every secondary teacher and principal.

Part III, on Civic Education, is a timely contribution to a subject that is just now holding a place of most vital interest to schools everywhere. It applies specifically to Memphis the best thought on the subject, and outlines the work recommended in considerable detail thruout the elementary grades and the junior and senior high schools.

Part IV analyzes conditions with reference to science

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teaching in the high schools. It bears the mark of the skillful analysis of Professor Twiss, who is most distinguished for his work in this field. His report makes clear what should be done to improve the good features and eliminate the bad. It calls attention to the absence of science in the elementary grades, and strongly recommends a complete scheme of nature study and science instruction in all the elementary grades, and the proposed junior high schools, with a trained supervisor of science for the grades.

Part V sets forth the situation connected with instruction in music in the schools, and the promotion of music and musical appreciation in the community. It applies the socialized view of music as a factor in education as a basis of judging the scope and efficiency of instruction, and a broad program for improvement is outlined.

Part VI is on Industrial Arts, Home Economics, and Gardening, and Part VII on Health Work, and they cover the ground of these important phases of school work in the same analytic and thoro manner that characterizes all features of the survey.

As a whole, the report of the Memphis survey is most valuable. It furnishes material for study and discussion in meetings of general and special teachers of the elementary and high schools, and would constitute an admirable work for use in courses on school administration and secondary and elementary education in colleges and normal schools.

The Wilmington survey

At the invitation of the group known as The Service Citizens, a school survey of Wilmington, Delaware, has likewise been undertaken by the United States Bureau of Education. A special survey staff, organized by Commissioner Claxton, completed the work and presented a report before the meeting of the state legislature last month. Dr. Bunker directed this survey also, and, beside the regular specialists of the Bureau, eight additional experts in various lines of education were called from the outside. These included Dean Thomas M. Balliet of New York University, Mr. Ralph Bow-

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man, the expert in municipal finance, Professor George R. Twiss of Ohio State University, and Mr. Will Earhart, Supervisor of Music, Pittsburgh. The large number of educational specialists engaged in this survey is indicative of the care with which it was conducted. Every important phase of the administration and work of the schools was studied, and, by means of staff conferences, lights were focussed on the problems from various viewpoints. Thus the survey was enabled to arrive at well-balanced conclusions as to merits and defects, and to make recommendations that are both constructive and feasible.

The survey commission found that the most important and insistent need in Wilmington is the scrapping of all of the school buildings, with the single exception of the high school, and the construction of an entirely new plant equipped with modern facilities. Of thirty elementary schools for white children in Wilmington, twelve were built before 1875, and of these five dated back to the 50's. Except for three buildings, none have been erected within the past fifteen years. These old buildings were constructed on the plan of the Lancastrian schools, and have been added to and patched up from time to time. In consequence, from the standpoint of ventilation, lighting arrangements, and healthfulness of surroundings, the school plant of Wilmington is by far the worst that the survey commission of the Bureau of Education has ever examined. Furthermore, the schools are all small, none accommodating more than eight hundred children and fourteen enrolling fewer than four hundred. None of them have playgrounds. It is clear, therefore, that Wilmington should rebuild her entire school plant along modern lines, one of the first essentials being to consolidate the schools into fewer buildings, each of them larger and fully equipped with adequate grounds and facilities for a modern type of education. Furthermore, plans should be laid not only to relieve present congestion, but to anticipate the growth for a period of ten years. To meet these conditions, the commission has elaborated three possible plans, and shown the advantages of each.

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The commission has also recommended that the board of education and the management of school finances be reorganized in keeping with modern administration. It is urged that the board, which now comprises thirteen members, twelve of whom are elected by wards, be reduced to seven, and that they either be elected at large or apportioned between the two state senatorial districts into which Wilmington is divided. The commission further recommends that the board reorganize its work in such a way that it will be relieved of the multitude of petty details with which its time is now occupied, and thus be left free to give its attention to the larger matters of general policy.

In school finances, it is insisted that such legislative changes be made as will free the board from the control of the city council. And, finally, the commission recommends that the board adopt an accounting system that will show clearly what becomes of the moneys expended by the school department. Wilmington does not now have any knowledge of what important school activities are costing. The commission is submitting the details of a plan which will give the information that the board should have concerning its disbursements.

A preliminary survey of Washington

A report of the preliminary survey of the District of Columbia has just been issued from the press. This survey was also made by the United States Bureau of Education, and covers only a plan for the reorganization of the administrative and teaching forces of the schools, including a schedule of salaries. The committee appointed made no attempt to study the need for buildings, the school finances, the courses of study, or the classroom work. Dr. Bunker was the director, and was assisted by Drs. Capen, Small and Ryan, all of them at that time specialists in the Bureau of Education. In the brief time that could be devoted to the task, it was impossible to collect and present all the facts and arguments, which, with more time, might have been given in support of the recommendations, but it is believed that

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a more comprehensive survey will amply justify these findings. The recommendations are reported in three parts: (1) those concerning additions to the administrative, supervising, and teaching staffs, and changes in their organization; (2) those in regard to classification and salaries; and (3) those relating to a more adequate basis for the payment of janitor service.

Several radical departures in administration are urged. It is recommended that the number of assistant superintendents be increased from two to six, that supervising principals be selected for groups of schools in place of the teaching principal in each of the schools, that special teachers of drawing, music, manual training, domestic science, and physical training be appointed for the elementary schools, that directors of these special subjects be provided, that the most capable teachers of the system be held in reserve as substitute teachers, and that appointed heads of high school departments be superseded by chairmen elected by the groups, and that a correlation of allied subjects be arranged for by committees of chairmen. The most important departure, however, is that urged in the matter of salaries. It is recommended that the traditional distinction between teachers of elementary schools and those in secondary work be completely eliminated. Academic and professional training, successful experience, and evidence of professional growth and success, rather than mere assignment to kindergarten, elementary grades, or high schools, are held to be the proper determining factors for promotion in salary. Excellent suggestions are also offered for a more equitable basis for paying janitors' salaries. Instead of the usual haphazard (or political) methods of determining the amount, an analysis of janitorial duties is to be made and the employe given compensation and assistance in proportion to his actual service and needs.

The adoption of the recommendations made will certainly increase considerably the cost of the schools in the District of Columbia, but it is quite as certain that, without

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some such generous scale of reorganization and support, education can never be brought to the degree of excellence that should characterize the schools of the national capital. In a tentative report first made by the staff some even more radical measures were advocated. These looked toward the larger participation of teachers in the policies and management of the school system. But, after further consideration, it was deemed wise to withhold these recommendations until a more comprehensive study had been undertaken.

The cooperative survey of Baltimore

Probably the most extensive survey at present under way is that of the Baltimore school system. This is in the general charge of a dozen specialists from Teachers College, with Dr. George D. Strayer, head of the department of Educational Administration, as the director. These specialists are responsible for the direction of the field work, the assembling of data, and the writing of the report, but the survey will involve the services of approximately one hundred field workers, in addition to the directing staff. It is fortunate that these volunteers could be enlisted, as the appropriation for the survey is only $25,000, which is barely sufficient to cover the necessary expenses for supplies, railroad fares, hotel bills, printing, and the like. But in order that there may be no question regarding the validity of the recommendations made, a reviewing committee, composed of Dr. Abraham Flexner, of the General Education Board, Dr. Frank E. Spaulding of Yale, Dr. Alexander Inglis of Harvard, and Dr. Ellwood P. Cubberley of Stanford, has been constituted, to visit the Baltimore schools, read the report, and, in conference with the Director of the Survey, determine the recommendations finally to be made.

The first report of the survey, and the only one available as yet, has to do with school buildings. This shows that seventy-five per cent of the buildings are less than fifty per cent adequate, as measured by the Strayer-Engelhardt score card for school buildings. This preliminary report

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was made to the City Club and received large publicity in the newspapers just before election. Seven million dollars were, in consequence, voted on November 2d for school buildings and repairs for buildings. The Director of the Survey has already been in conference with those responsible for the school building program and has given advice with respect to repairs, the location of new buildings, and the type of buildings to be erected.

But the chief emphasis of the survey will be upon an adequate statement of a constructive educational policy. The staff will continue to discover and publish the present conditions, but it hopes to make its greatest contribution in terms of a thoroly sound program for the development of the school system, and to acquaint the people with it as the survey proceeds. The request for a survey at this time was probably due to the fact that the citizens have not been satisfied with the progress of the schools during the past nine years, since the former survey was made. A new city administration came into power last January, pledged to an improvement of the school system as a primary concern. The people are desirous of moving ahead educationally. There has been arranged a series of "Better Schools for Baltimore" luncheons to which public-spirited citizens are invited and at which the issues of the survey or of the proposed program are presented from time to time. The success of the survey will be measured in terms of things actually done as a result of the recommendations based upon the inquiry.

The state survey of Philadelphia

At the request of the city Board of Education and the Public Education Association, State Superintendent Finegan is having a survey made of the public school system of Philadelphia. A survey would probably have been undertaken much earlier, but funds were lacking, and the survey is now being made by the state office, with the aid of a subscription of $30,000 raised by interested citizens. While the investigation is being primarily conducted under the

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direction of members of Dr. Finegan's official staff at Harrisburg, experts from the outside have in some instances been engaged. Among these are Dr. Thomas H. Briggs of Columbia University, who will direct the survey of secondary education; and City Superintendent John W. Withers of St. Louis, who will assist in the report upon elementary education. Dr. Finegan himself is giving his personal attention to the legal organization of the school system and to the general plan of administration.

The outline for the conduct of the survey has been drawn, and work has been started in all fields. So far as given out, the survey may be grouped under the following principal headings:

(1) *School buildings and equipment.* Dr. Finegan plans to make an exhaustive examination of all the school buildings and their equipment, and also of the lack of facilities now existing in the city.
(2) *Attendance.* A comprehensive study is being made of the attendance of children in the schools of the city.
(3) *Elementary education.*
(4) *Secondary education,* including junior high schools.
(5) *Vocational education.* The Chamber of Commerce of Philadelphia is cooperating with the State Department in making a study for the purpose of connecting the vocational work with the industrial needs. The Federal Board for Vocational Education has also been cooperating in the general aspects of vocational training.
(6) *Special activities,* including health instruction, physical education, recreational facilities, library equipment, music, and art.
(7) *Qualifications of teachers* employed in the school system and providing trained teachers as new entrants in the service.
(8) *Efficiency of instruction.*
(9) *Professional supervision.*
(10) *Board of education* and general administration of the school system.
(11) *Financial affairs.*

Dr. Finegan expects to have the survey completed by next month when a complete report will be transmitted to the Board of Education.

A survey of a small city and rural region

Thus far we have recounted only the recent surveys that have been projected for large cities. But similar investigations should be and in several instances are being made

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of small cities and country districts. The educational conditions in the smaller cities and the adjacent rural regions thruout the South especially, afford a fruitful subject. A typical study of this kind, which includes a survey of the schools of Brunswick and of Glynn County, in the extreme southeastern corner of Georgia, has just been completed by Dr. Bunker and a staff from the Bureau of Education.

In organizing the report on the survey, Dr. Bunker has experimented with a plan of arrangement that differs from the customary method that the Bureau has adopted in studies of this character. The conclusions are first exprest dogmatically, in the form of definite statements in black print. Each statement is then discust at whatever length it seems desirable in order to justify the conclusion. In response to the request of the local Board of Education, the survey commission in its study of the schools gave most attention to matters relating to organization and administration, school finance, building needs, courses of study, methods of teaching, and teacher qualifications.

The report recommends first of all that the board should adopt a simple system of cost accounting and shows in detail how this may be acccomplished. Its second conclusion is that the superintendent should keep in orderly and systematic manner statistical information concerning significant matters relating to the schools. Thirdly, it is held that an attendance officer on full time should be appointed and required to keep a cumulative school census. The report then maintains that the holding power of the schools is low and should be increased. The fifth recommendation is that the school act should be amended so as to provide for an elective board and make the county a single taxation unit. It is next insisted that the system needs a stronger teaching staff and more effective classroom work. A new course of study is also held to be imperative. The eighth conclusion is that the financial support of the schools must be greatly increased. To relieve congestion in the city, schools should be reorganized on the

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work-study-play plan. A comprehensive building plan should be adopted for the country schools. Finally, the poor showing made by the pupils in standard educational measurements is given.

There is reason to believe that if the suggestions contained in this report are carried out with intelligence, in a few years the work of the Brunswick and adjacent rural schools, or of other similarly backward districts of the South, can be placed on a plane which will compare favorably with that of any system. But the accomplishment of this will require hard, thoughtful, and very earnest work on the part of the entire school corps, and will demand a much more generous financial support than is received at present.

Survey of a wealthy small city

The Survey Commission of the Bureau has also just completed a study of another type. This is the survey of a small but wealthy municipality, suburban to a great center of population, and is represented by Winchester, Massachusetts, just outside of Boston. Winchester, to be sure, is not incorporated as a city and the approval for a survey was voted in an old-fashioned New England town-meeting last March, but it contains considerably over the ten thousand population that would make it a city in almost any other part of the country, and may be regarded as typical.

The conclusions and recommendations of the survey report have been crystallized at the end of each sub-division, instead of at the beginning, as in the Brunswick survey. Questions of organization, administration, and finances, are fully discust. The report shows that, altho the expenditure per pupil in Winchester is high in comparison with other cities, the outlay in proportion to wealth is low. While the elementary school teachers have generally had the standard training of at least four years in high school and two in normal school, too few have of late attended summer school or extension courses. Altho teachers' salaries have been increased, they have not kept pace with the increased cost of living and are not arranged upon

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the right basis. Since principals teach, the report holds that more provision should be made for general supervision. Practically every child of compulsory age is enrolled in the public or private schools, but attendance could be improved with more cooperation on the part of the parents, and there are enough children obtaining work permits to demand a continuation school. Winchester's plan of grouping children according to ability is practical and should be continued, but more adequate provision should be made for children of low mental capacity that are not feeble-minded.

The discussions connected with the course of study and teaching practise are likewise modern and sane. Formal discipline as a direct aim is given the *coup de grace*, and the project and problem methods are commended and illustrated. It is shown, too, how method is to be determined by subject matter, the principles of psychology, the maturity of the pupil, and the special abilities of the teacher. Every high school subject should be analyzed with regard to its utility as a means of training for health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocational efficiency, citizenship, worthy use of leisure, and character.

Despite the wealth of Winchester, its school buildings are comparatively old and without modern facilities. They do not provide opportunities for healthful work and play, and recommendations for a building program to afford this are presented in the report. Three plans are offered, each showing the cost of the buildings and the number of teachers required, on the basis both of the traditional and the work-study-play organizations, and the first plan, providing for two combination elementary and junior high schools, is preferred.

A local survey of Scranton

As we have seen, the self-survey is coming very generally into use. One of the most exhaustive of these recent local surveys that has come to our attention is that of the public

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schools of Scranton, Pennsylvania. It was made under the direction of the superintendent, Dr. Samuel E. Weber, and other members of the local staff, at the request of the city board of education.

The Scranton survey concerns itself chiefly with the buildings, grounds and other physical equipment, already provided or to be provided, for the instruction of the school population; qualifications and renumeration of teachers; age and distribution of pupils by grades and schools; progress thru the grades, including the high schools; progress of pupils, as determined by educational measurements applied to silent reading, arithmetic, spelling, English composition, and penmanship; composition of the non-English speaking population of the city; medical inspection; and detailed cost accounting by the department of buildings and supplies.

The report includes a sufficient number of carefully selected and well-drawn charts to explain graphically the more important tables of statistics. To those who are interested in the possibilities of a local survey, we recommend the study of this one made in the city of Scranton.

A survey of education in Hawaii

Even Hawaii has been surveyed! Scientific method has ruthlessly invaded this land of romance,—the home of the ukelele and surfboard, the locale of the crested Haleakala and the hissing and boiling Kilauea. As the editor has never entered this realm of poetic fancy, he has asked his fellow Pennsylvanian, Dr. Will Grant Chambers, Dean of the School of Education, University of Pittsburgh, to furnish an account of the survey of Hawaii reported by the Bureau of Education. Dean Chambers has himself visited Hawaii as the representative of the United States government on a mission of a different sort, and is in other ways most competent to discuss the conditions that prevail in that country. The description of the Hawaiian survey below comes from his pen.

While the United States was still actively engaged in

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the Great War, the thinking people of Hawaii, anxious about the increasing complexity and delicacy of the racial and industrial problems of the island, and aware of the failure of the school system to adapt itself to the needs of the time and place, had appealed to the United States Commissioner of Education to conduct a survey of the school system. They hoped that they might thus bring clearly into view the outstanding educational needs of the islands and the means of supplying them. Conditions growing out of the final stages of the war prevented the survey's being undertaken until the fall of 1919. The Commission which undertook the investigation was composed of Frank E. Bunker, U. S. Bureau of Education, as director; W. W. Kemp, University of California; Parke R. Kolbe, President of the Municipal University of Akron; and George R. Twiss, of Ohio State University. The preliminary report of the survey has been issued in the form of a departmental bulletin, and is divided into four chapters.

The first chapter presents the conditions as to racial groups of the population, occupations, and the problems growing out of the interaction of race and occupation. In the second chapter the administrative organization and machinery of the insular educational system are described, and its methods of financing the schools portrayed and criticized. The third chapter is devoted to perhaps the most serious problem of education in the islands, the problem of the foreign-language schools and their retarding influence on the process of Americanization. A brief final chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the Commission. No report is made in the preliminary edition of the measurement of any of the school products.

The outstanding social, industrial, and educational problems of Hawaii grow out of the peculiar circumstances (1) that the population is extremely mixt and dominantly oriental, (2) that the productive lands have fallen into the hands of a few powerful corporations, (3) that the native population has left the land and made necessary the importation in recent times of great numbers of contract

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laborers, (4) that the intelligence which directs the affairs of the territory is furnished by a relatively small number of people of American and European stocks, and (5) that the United States military and naval establishments furnish a large group of transient male residents with the usual unfortunate social consequences.

The survey makes it clear that the schools of the island have done little or nothing to meet the occupational needs of the racial characteristics of the people; and the coming of age of increasing numbers of Hawaiian-born Japanese and other oriental stock is raising a problem of Americanization on the solution of which the future political life of the islands depends and which may even involve the international relations of the Nation; that the Japanese language schools, maintained by the church, are a retarding influence, if not a positive menace; that the appalling increase in the death rate coupled with an abnormal decrease in the birth rate of the native Hawaiians presents an eugenic problem with which education must grapple; that the teacher supply is wholly unsatisfactory in quality, because recruited almost wholly from non-English speaking stocks of the islands and from adventurous transients from the mainland; that the form or organization of the school system is defective, especially in the method of appointment of the Commissioners and Superintendent of Schools and in their conflict of authority; and that the insular normal school is archaic and in need of a complete reorganization.

The recommendations of the report represent an effort to apply to the solution of the problems revealed by the Commission's analysis of the peculiar social and industrial conditions of Hawaii the most approved agencies and institutions that are in successful operation in various parts of the nation. These recommendations—to name some of the most important—include: (1) the appointment by the Governor of a Territorial board of seven School Commissioners, to serve as the responsible head of the school system, authorized to appoint and direct a Superintendent of Schools and to select members of County Boards of

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Education for the four principal islands; (2) the lengthening of the school day to seven or eight hours, and including in its activities not only formal academic instruction, but vocational and recreational training as well; (3) the organization of Junior High Schools at centrally located points, and the transportation of pupils thereto, in order to bring educational opportunities to all the people; (4) provision of effective supervision of the work of the numerous private schools; (5) kindergartens in all the schools of the islands; (6) the arrangement of all schools in groups for purposes of systematic supervision by responsible group principals; (7) the complete reorganization of the Territorial Normal School, on a new site, under a new administration, preferably in connection with the University of Hawaii, raising the entrance requirements to admit only high school graduates and offering a two-year professional course; (8) the elimination of all foreign-language schools, except for foreign children that can never become citizens of the United States; (9) increased financial support for carrying into effect the far-reaching recommendations of the Commission.

On the whole, the report presents in brief form a vivid picture of the educational needs of the islands in their relation to the peculiar racial and industrial conditions there existing. It will be read with interest and profit by all who are concerned with educational progress and the problems of Americanization in the United States and its insular possessions.

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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

MARCH, 1921

I

POLITICAL SCIENCE AND PRACTICAL CITIZENSHIP

Henry Van Dyke is authority for the statement that a faithful and intelligent citizen is the final object of education. The three correct ideals of education, in the phrase of another, are occupation, citizenship, and manhood. Sentiments like these have been echoed and re-echoed by a host of leading educators and lesser lights; so that few will be disposed to cavil at the deduction that training in citizenship is a primary function and fundamental task of the teacher.

We learn by doing. This truth has been feverishly seized upon during the months of storm and stress following the world upheaval with its accompanying revelations, and learned men of the social sciences have devoted themselves to devising schemes of "Civic Training thru Service," special courses in "Americanization," and the like—and this is well. But if it is important to give little children in the schools instruction thru actual civic service, it is doubly important to turn every college into a thoroly equipped public service station. For it is to the American college that the American citizenry must look for prepared leadership. It is not altogether complimentary to the college to observe that leadership of the right kind is the conspicuous want in American public life to-day.

Was there ever a time when statesmanship was more in demand? Instead of stepping into the place of world leadership proffered by a distraught world and rising with

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confidence to the fullness of her matchless opportunity for planetary service, bewildered America has for two years been pitifully groping about for an international policy befitting the new day, failing even to grapple vigorously with domestic problems—fatuously marking time while events are marching as never before during the centuries. Watchman, what of the night?

At the beginning of another winter, the European situation is thus summed up in the market letter of a business firm:

"Conditions in Europe are becoming more critical. Readjustment to a peace basis is resulting in more friction and more industrial, financial and political troubles than Europe ever before experienced. The social system is breaking down.

"Russia is starving. Its factories are idle, its people discouraged and rebellious. Soviet government is a failure.

"Germany is half idle and half starving. Its future is dark. Its bank note circulation is now 58,401,047,000 marks. It has risen 23 billions this year.

"Austria is even worse off than Germany as to food prices and starvation. Half of its children under twelve have tubercular infection and 90 per cent show symptoms of rickets.

"Italy is in the hands of the 'Reds.' Nearly 1,000 of its metal, chemical, and other works have been taken over by organized labor. In the country districts the peasantry is moving against the big land owners.

"France appears to be recovering, but reconstruction is so slow that her greatest intellectual writer, Anatole France, says that European's civilization is dying.

"Great Britain is torn with race and labor troubles, until many of her citizens are looking for another Cromwell.

"Nearly all of these European countries are hopelessly, or almost hopelessly, in debt. Not only are they quarrelling about territory, but there are said to be seventeen wars now going on inside their boundaries."

Sir Philip Gibbs, in a copyright special to the New York *Times*, says:

"No man, unless he is blind or drunk with optimism, can deny that Europe at the present time is very sick. During the last year I have visited many countries of Europe and in most of them under the surface of social gayety, appearance of normal life and apparent recovery from the wounds of war, I found a sense of impending ruin and dreadful anxiety of the future. In some countries, of course, ruin is not impending but present and engulfing. Austria is one of them, so stricken, so starving, so helpless and hopeless that she exists on charity alone and is sapped of all vital energy. We are truly in a sick state, and altho I do not believe with Anatole France that Europe is dying just yet, I think there will be great agonies to go thru unless there is a com-

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plete change of heart, a tremendous spiritual revival among the peoples of Europe."

A war-weary world of sin-sick nations constitutes the most compelling challenge to opulent America that was ever presented to any people. If to Imperial Rome was once given the opportunity to rule the world in justice and righteousness, if to united Spain was vouchsafed the glittering prospect of world liberation at the dawn of modern history, then to our United States of America has been yielded by the powers of earth the exalted privilege of leadership out of the wilderness of strife and bankruptcy and into the compassing of a great world emancipation. While the opportunity is still ours, it is devoutly to be hoped that we shall not like ancient Rome become the victim of domestic foes and moral decay, nor like Spain suffer decadence because of provincial pride and unrelenting conservatism. America, if any nation, is to-day blessed with a matchless opportunity: here, if anywhere among the sons of men, there is room for hope and optimism. And yet I have never observed more of downright pessimism, from prophet and politician, from moralist and financier, than the months just past have evoked. The world challenges America,—shall we heed the challenge?

As the world challenges America in the hour of dire need, so America challenges the college man. The supremacy of the cultured is an undoubted fact of American democracy. But are current leaders, is contemporaneous history, adequate to the demands of present civilization?

A recent critic of higher education[1] points out that a half-century of self-complacency and mutual admiration has rendered our colleges and universities blind to the conditions and needs of the times and their community as well as to their own lack of adjustment. "He finds that the net outcome of college life is a partial vocational preparation for some few professions and a little of 'that indefinable culture which is truly said to remain after one has forgotten what one has learned.'" He boldly suggests the

[1] Hudson, *The college and the new America.*

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need for a profound reshaping of its intentions, and finds in the college that President Harding referred to in common education when in his speech on Social Justice he declared explicitly that we have "just awakened to the fact that the education of the American child everywhere has fallen below the standard necessary for the protection of our future."

It may not be amiss to point out one or two serious defects in contemporaneous American life which, if educators are not responsible for them, they should at least labor unceasingly to remedy. Such a defect is the spirit of lawlessness that is abroad. The 'majesty of the law' with many has become a preposterous expression. Multitudes of the prople, educated and illiterate alike, have come to have no respect for law so long as they can violate it and 'get away with it.' It is an ominous sign of the times that citizens, and even certain newspapers, brazenly parade their contempt of the law whenever it is, perchance, inconvenient for them to obey it or because they happen to be opposed to the principle it upholds. We are not moved when a taxpayer swears falsely concerning his income; we merely smile at the frequency with which the motorist breaks the traffic regulations or speeds his machine; we condone illegal gambling and fake promotion, and wink at 'cribbing' in examinations; the bootlegger and the profiteer ply their trades behind almost transparent smoke screens; the hunter and the angler tell fairy tales about 'getting the limit;' the sacred vows of matrimony are disregarded for increasingly trivial reasons, threatening the very stability of human society. Democracy is never safe in the hands of the enemies. Trifling with the enforcement of the law breeds contempt for all law. In one of the noblest utterances of the great war President Woodrow Wilson said: "What we seek is the reign of law, based on the consent of the governed, and sustained by the organized opinion of mankind."

Another defect, in spirit intimately related to the one just pointed out, lies in the failure to recognize that the

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moral habits of a people are more fundamental than statutory enactment. *Quid leges sine moribus?* is a question that finds particular applicability in our day. "A man may be a bad husband, a bad father, a bad guardian, without coming into conflict with the rules of a single law. He may be an extortionate landlord, a wasteful tenant, a hard dealer, an unreliable tradesman, and yet the legal machinery of the country may be quite powerless to chastise him. He may be, furthermore (continues Professor Amos), a self-seeking politician, an unscrupulous demagogue, or an indolent aristocrat, and yet satisfy to the utmost the claims of the law upon him. Nevertheless, it is just in the conduct of these several relationships that the bulk of human life consists, and national prosperity and honor depend."[2] Infinitely wider than the field of exact law is the domain of morality, and Professor Rauschenbusch was right when he wrote: "The law becomes impotent if it is not supported by a diffused, spontaneous moral impulse in the community."[3] The law may, with measurable success, govern man's outward acts, but is confessedly inadequate to the discovery and control of his inner motives, and it is precisely in this latter realm that moral right and duty must ever reside.

I venture now to offer, as succinctly, yet informally, as I can, a series of constructive suggestions, having reference and applicability to the teaching of college undergraduates, not in political science in the circumscribed and purely abstract meaning of that term, but in the more productive field of civics and citizenship, including its foreground and background in the content of correlative social sciences. These suggestions are doubtless overlapping in character, and they purposefully encroach on history, economics, sociology, and ethics; but this I conceive to be their chief value, as affording proper motivation and perspective.

1. *Stress fundamental principles.* Much of our college teaching leaves the student's mind in a state of almos

[2] Amos, *Science of law*, p. 30.

[3] *Christianity and the social crisis*, p. 374.

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helpless confusion because of our failure to emphasize and reiterate the outstanding, commanding truths, reinforcing them by appeal to history and to contemporaneous social life. In a recent form letter sent to college presidents by the New York Stock Exchange, Mr. R. T. H. Halsey, Chairman of the Committee on Library, says: "It seems to us that perhaps the most serious weakness in our present day social fabric arises from public ignorance of economic fundamentals and of the absolute interdependability of all the elements going to make up our entire economic structure. The remedy lies principally with our institutions of learning." If more heed were given to a clear enunciation and faithful inculcation of the very foundations of progress and civilization, there would be less need of reminding ourselves that, "The economic ocean will defy any modern Canute who may try to stop its movements."[4]

2. *Teach social sciences thru social service.* The extension departments of certain great universities have recently been commendably active in the dissemination of "a broad, accurate and liberal knowledge of citizenship, its responsibilities, and problems among voters old and new." Numerous individuals, both within and without the university, are accepting the challenge to social workers. But who will make bold to say that the typical or predominating attitude among college men and women is that of social service, "the socialization of achievement?" Social work as yet lacks even an adequate definition; but at least it is motivated by the aim of social improvement, by a recognition and appreciation of the "significance of human relationship," and an intellectual honesty that desires to know and establish the truth.

Unless the social point of view, which seeks to enhance the general welfare, is faithfully presented to students in political science and the whole range of social sciences, together with some opportunity to visualize and concrete the lessons by actual service, the future leaders of democracy

[4] Clark, *Essentials of economic theory,* p. 131.

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are deprived of their most effective weapon of offense. "The ultimate aim of education is neither the individual nor society but the realization of the individual in society, and human nature, far from being an insurmountable barrier to social well-being, needs only the right direction to 'create a social solidarity of a social type marked by service rather than by exploitation.'"[5]

3. *Preach and practise political idealism.* Politics is one of those terms, like patriotism and civilization, that we profess to know a great deal about but have the greatest difficulty in defining. We may in one breath speak of "that noble science of politics," the political art which "seeks the solutions of concrete problems," and that narrow partizan politics which resorts to certain base and devious electioneering methods.

But since politics has to do with every interest of society and the state, and everything pertaining to good government lies within its province, our teachers must steadfastly uphold its essential idealism and insist that even the everyday facts of perverted and sordid politics constitute a salient proof of the existence of the fine reality. If democracy means the enthronement of the common man, then we must cease to malign politics and must enthrone Macaulay's "noble science" in the day-by-day activity as in the thought of the great body of our citizenry. When the teachers teach it and the preachers preach it, the common man will heed it and the public servant will practise it. The politician's profession must yet be accounted honorable.

4. *Restore a new type of Puritanism.* America stands in need of a renaissance of the solid virtues that characterized the Pilgrim Fathers whose landing we commemorate in this year of grace. "The effects of Puritanism," wrote the eloquent historian,[6] "display its true character still more distinctly. Ecclesiastical tyranny is of all kinds the worst; its fruits are cowardice, idleness, ignorance, and poverty: Puritanism was a life-giving spirit; activity,

[5] G. V. Price, in Education, June, 1920, p. 592.

[6] Bancroft, *History of U. S.*, I, 462–63.

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thrift, intelligence, followed in its train; and, as for courage, a coward and a Puritan never went together. 'He that prays best, and preaches best, will fight best;' such was the judgment of Cromwell, the greatest soldier of his age." The outward garb of 17th century Puritanism is gone forever, but the 20th century calls loudly for the enthronement of its inner spirit and splendid virtues, which are eternal. And the true teacher is called to be an apostle and a leader among new Pilgrims.

5. *Put principle before expediency.* Mere compromise where fundamentals are involved has always been exceedingly costly, and—if the lessons of history are worth anything—it always will be costly. The full weight of the penalty for certain well-known compromises in our federal constitution has not been paid after more than a century and a quarter. It is very likely to prove good economy and excellent political science, as it unquestionably is sound morality, when a question of fundamental principle is involved, to stand firm for the right and fight thru the issue on the basis of deep conviction, at whatever immediate sacrifice, rather than by mere temporary expediency to invite future disaster and demoralization. It does not require a prophet to perceive the germs of moral confusion and social disintegration in some of the most popular, if totally unworthy, ideals in contemporary life. Thus, the college man is quite content if he can so 'bluff' as to 'get by' his professor; the business promoter is more concerned with 'putting it over' than with rendering a public service; the professional man at whatever social hazard must not fail to 'make good;' and the heedless world in its headlong course is wheedled into believing that 'nothing succeeds like success.' Away with such sentiments! They cover a multitude of social sins. For men of unsullied character and steadfast purpose they are always unworthy and often base and ignoble. To sow to the wind is to invite a harvest to the whirlwind. "History, indeed," wrote Mr. E. F. Coudert, "is of no use and preaches in a desert if its ghastly record bears with it no fruit in the way

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of lesson or of sermon."[7] Some day we shall understand that a sound, fundamental morality is indispensable, that integrity is on a higher level than ability, that the weight of a great conviction overbalances a thousand cleverly conceived schemes. Manhood is greater than all human devices.

6. *Exalt the spiritual meaning of life.* A basic principle lying at the foundation of true culture demands a full development of all the noble powers given to man. The conclusion seems inevitable that spiritual existence is the essential meaning of life. Man is great, simply as a man, be he where or what he may; but because the object of life is growth, because the ground of his culture lies in his own nature, because he possesses the divine powers of the soul, man is a greater name than prince or king:

> "Unless above himself he can
> Erect himself, how poor a thing is man."

Spirituality is the wholeness of life, the life of the mastery of the world; it is the leaven of truth, "hidden in thought, feeling and action, slowly finding expression in physical, social, and intellectual relations, until all respond to it, and are ruled by it." Conduct is more than erudition. Matthew Arnold has it: "Conduct is three-fourths of life; culture is the other fourth." But I would not thus separate conduct and culture,—culture is all-pervasive in the totality of life.

> "Learning is but an adjunct to ourself. * *
> It adds a precious seeing to the eye."

The needy world of to-day needs nothing so much as a deep spiritual revival, a rebirth of the things that make for the more abundant life. "The corner stone of sound finance," said David Lloyd George, "is peace on earth, good will toward men." Call it religion, if you wish: the religion worth having is the great dynamic which gives the historian spiritual insight into the past, holds the politician to ideals of service, teaches the economist that nothing is truly useful unless it is also beneficial, guides the sociologist along

[7] Forum, July, 1894.

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the pathway of the general welfare, and transforms the precepts of the moralist into radiant life.

In his inaugural address as President of Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Doctor Henry S. Pritchett said: "Whether wisely or unwisely, whether for good or ill, it may be accepted as a fact that the government of this country is passing rapidly into the hands of the educated man." I submit that in our day the kind of education is even more important than the quantity; "for character is the vital matter," wrote Theodore Roosevelt shortly before his death; "and character can not be created by law."

For college classes, therefore, certainly no less than in more elementary instruction, the teacher, to be worthy of his calling, must be not only a scholar but also a dynamic, creative personality. His is the exalted and unique privilege of guiding the course of the future leaders of the nation. Is he with sustained enthusiasm rising to his matchless opportunity as counsellor in wisdom and exemplar in virtue?

A first magnitude problem for college teachers, not always clearly perceived in our generation, is consistently and effectively to promote this dynamic, creative personality. A prominent alumnus of a leading university confessed that during his six years of undergraduate and graduate life there were but two men among all his professors and instructors who had made any real and lasting impress upon his life and character.

And so I am making a plea for the renewal of the higher principles and deeper consecration on the part of those to whom is committed so great a task. Teachers of political science, of any of the social sciences, are assuredly called upon to render their full quota of this fine service.

ROCKWELL D. HUNT

GRADUATE SCHOOL,
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA,
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

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II

HISTORY TEACHING AND AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP

For Americans the outstanding lesson of the World War has been the menace of the cult of Pacifism and the necessity of a prepared national defense. With little question the slow reaction of the country to the really appalling dangers which faced it, is in part to be explained by the quieting assurance of the autocrat installed in the White House, which acted on men's minds and consciences like a powerful narcotic. This alone is, however, not adequate to explain the national apathy in the face of a terrible peril. Had the teaching of history in our schools and colleges revealed the plain truths concerning what our military record has been, the country must have reacted strongly for prompt and adequate preparedness, in spite of the bitter opposition of Mr. Wilson. Our youth had, in fact, been brought up to believe that our custom of calling raw levies of troops after war had broken out, instead of being responsible for our long and costly wars with their disgraceful defeats, had always brought victory over our enemies. Hull's defeat at Detroit, the fiasco at Queenstown, and the disgraceful sack of our national capital have in these histories been either ignored or glossed over, while individual hero exploits that make pleasant reading and excite pride of race and country have formed the controlling motifs in our school histories.

If we are to take to heart the terrible lesson of the World War we must be ready to face issues squarely and tell the plain truths however unpalatable they may be. Does any sane person now believe that if this policy had been followed in the past, a pacifist orator could have thundered to the accompaniment of tumultuous applause his statement

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that an effective army of a million men could spring to arms between sunrise and sunset?

A new crop of history texts will soon be coming—are coming—from the publishers. What will they say of America's reaction to the war, of that great struggle to build up the national morale which has become known as the Preparedness Movement and in which Roosevelt, Wood, Root, Choate, Beck, Putnam, Gardner, and a host of others, bore a part—a movement of which a competent judge has said, "Nothing of the kind, and certainly nothing of equal extent, has been known in this or any other country." A recently published text gives us an idea of what may occur in some instances. This book is attractively written, but in the closing portion, which treats in considerable detail America's part in the war, it does not so much as mention the movement for preparedness. In place of doing so, it makes the palpably false statements: "To our own surprize and to that of the world, we proved that American democracy, utterly unready for war as it was, could organize for war, by voluntary cooperation more efficiently and swiftly than any autocracy had ever done." "Democracy proved that when attacked it could put aside its ordinary work and play and take on war activities with resolution, efficiency, and unanimity unexcelled." There is in the text no mention of the airplane production, but a picture of a fleet of training planes over San Diego carries in its legend the significant phrase "suggesting on what a vast scale this country developed aerial service during the war." Must it be pointed out to anyone to-day that up to the signing of the armistice the American battle plane was practically unknown on the battle front; and that of the more than $1,000,000,000 expended for air craft production, investigation showed that practically all had been wasted? The author's attitude is clearly revealed in the sentence, "The world is freed, we trust, from the perpetual cost of vast navies and crushing military establishments," but yet, curiously enough, he later tells us that because the "Fourteen Points" of Mr. Wilson were given up for a

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"stern peace," the treaty of Versailles must inevitably breed wars.

Singled out for special praise in America's reaction to the war, are what persons? Do we find the names of Roosevelt, Wood, Root, Gardner, or Beck? No. The author mentions for special praise Bryan, Ford, and the socialists, Spargo, Russell, Sinclair, and George Creel. To the latter's Committee on Public Information is ascribed a major part in winning the war, but it is at least properly characterized as a "new thing in human history."

It is altogether amazing to note with what appearance of certitude the most intricate and recent of European events concerning which only the highly colored accounts of political staff writers are available, are taken up and disposed of as if their causes stood out in the clear light of day. All opinions carry the strong color of the author's peculiar point of view. To his violent pacifism is added a Wilsonian internationalism combined with an altogether noteworthy sympathy for Bolshevism, as will be shown by citations. This does not mean that President Wilson escapes without criticism, but the author's point of view is essentially that of intense disappointment that Mr. Wilson failed to gain endorsement for his sacrosanct "Fourteen Points" and his "Covenant." Concerning the various proposals offered by the French and English Premiers at the Peace Conference, the author says: "The American delegation opposed practically all these vicious provisions; but Mr. Wilson proved utterly unable to cope with the European diplomats. He had believed with supreme confidence that he could bring them to his terms; in fact, he proved a plaything in their hands."

The book takes up the work of propaganda for the League of Nations in a manner that is striking for its frankness, and it commends the President's appeal over the heads of the constituted Italian authorities so as to set the Italian people against their rulers to the end that he might have his way at Paris. Of the Covenant itself, the author says: "The chief opposition to the proposal appeared in the United

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States Senate, where certain Republicans tried to make it a party question." We can imagine the delight of the majority of our people as they read this partisan attack. Of the great drive of Wilson propaganda to gain support for the League Covenant before its provisions were allowed to become known either to the people or to the United States Senate, the author says that the opposition of the Republican Senate "was rendered difficult, happily, by the splendid work of Ex-President Taft, head of the American League to Enforce Peace, who with a group of leading Republicans toured the United States to procure support for the Covenant." On the same page reference is made to "A reservation of the Monroe Doctrine, inserted in the second draft, as a sop to American opposition." France is blamed for desiring a strategic frontier, it being claimed that she should trust her future security to the League of Nations.

Mr. Hoover comes in for unstinted praise, not only for his great work of feeding Belgium and for later conducting the American Food Administration, but we are told of a plot to restore the Hapsburg monarchy to power "with the shameful connivance of the Allies at Paris," which plot failed because "vigorous protest at Paris from Herbert Hoover prevented the lasting open success of this plot." Thus a great fact of history is recovered from oblivion thru the agency of the high school text. It is mentioned here not so much to affirm what the exact situation was as to indicate what might be called a "half-baked" treatment of contemporary history.

Italy's "act of plunder" concerning Fiume is treated and Mr. Wilson is highly praised for ordering the "George Washington" and threatening to leave the conference unless he should be allowed to have his way. The author here adds, "Unhappily in other cases, Mr. Wilson was not always so resolute." The attitude of dictation by America in the affairs of Europe is thus unqualifiedly endorsed. The allied governments who opposed Mr. Wilson come in for unqualified condemnation. We read of their "betrayal of government," of the "stupid allied blockade," etc., etc.

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Of Bolshevism and the Russian Soviets, the attitude of the author is one of distinct sympathy. This can be best brought out by citations of passages. Thus, for example:

"The Bolshevists are trying a new principle of citizenship. An able-bodied man or woman, who does no useful work with hand or brain, they look upon as a social parasite. Such people they exclude from voting. Political citizenship is based upon service to society. So far, the Bolshevists' idea, in theory at least, may command some sympathy,—tho we may not always agree with the Bolshevist judgment as to what social service is.

"In all the Allied countries tremendous popular feeling was aroused against the Bolsheviki. In part this was because the Allied peoples—ignorant of the facts mentioned—believed that government a mere tool of Germany. In part it was due to hatred and fear among propertied classes toward any Socialist régime. But more than all else, it was due to a false position adopted by the Bolsheviki in government—excluding all people living on their capital from political life.

"This, of course, was not democracy; it was class rule. True, *in Russia it was the rule of a large per cent of the whole population* (our italics); but the example of a "proletarian dictatorship" was dreaded by the "upper" and "middle" classes everywhere. Moreover, the Bolsheviki announced a repudiation of the Russian national debt. The Russian bonds were owned mainly in France; and that country persuaded the Allies to treat the Russian government as an enemy. Soon, too, various reactionary and middle-class movements against the Bolsheviki tyranny found leaders for a vigorous civil war."

Kolchak and Denikin are denounced by the author for their attack upon Bolshevism, and the Allied governments are roundly scored for supporting them with equipment and munitions.

For further reading the student is directed to three reactionary writers on Bolshevism: Arthur Ransom, William Bullitt, and Raymond Robins, and these only. Of the repercussion of Bolshevism on America we read:

" * * * * * True, too, there is going on a dangerous reaction typified by the arrogant attitude of the Steel Company in 1919 toward its striking employees. And these reactionaries have known how to throw discredit upon all progressive movements by confusing them in the popular mind with Bolshevism. But men of faith believe that the outlook brightens, and that a new day is breaking."

We can easily imagine how the author of "Flanders Fields" must turn in his grave to find his famous couplet used to conclude this book and also as an endorsement of Wilsonian Internationalism as exemplified by this author.

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I have dwelt upon this "history," because, better than any other that I know, it illustrates the way in which partisan bias—and partisan bias which in the light of a recent expression of the people's will is hopelessly wrong-headed—is being used to mislead our youth. There is another college text, published in 1915 and widely used, that is an enthusiastic endorsement of everything Wilsonian, and is entitled *The New Nation*, but it is not so easy to excerpt short sentences that will set forth its character. The European war is in this history text charged to the "policy of national armament * * * which reached its logical outcome in a great war. * * * " "President Wilson's precise neutrality won the confidence of all parties." Where was the author living to gain such an impression? The book is quite as noteworthy for what it fails to say, as the closing sentence of the book will indicate: "His (Wilson's) election in 1912 had been, in part, due to the dispersion of Republican strength caused by the progressive schism; in 1914 the influence of the Progressives was negligible and the Democrats retained their power in the face of the whole Republican attack." What of the slogan, "He kept us out of war?" The frontispiece of the book and its only illustration, with the exception of a few maps, is a portrait of President Wilson.

No one who has ever taught either in high school or college can have failed to be imprest by the implicit beliefs of his pupils in every sentence of the text employed, and, if Americanism is to be inculcated in the schools, there must neither be teaching of false doctrines nor covering up of disagreeable truths in connection with our national history. Upon the side of the pacifist or anti-American teacher will be found a natural desire on the part of those who are charged with selecting the texts to have only such matters included as reflect credit and arouse national pride; but imparting the unvarnished truth, unpleasant tho it may be, must be insisted upon with absolute relentlessness.

William Herbert Hobbs

University of Michigan,
Ann Arbor, Michigan

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III

OUR SCHOOLS AND WAR[1]

Can anything be done to lessen the probability of further wars? Is it right that our schools take any stand on the question? What can they in propriety undertake? What may they hope to effect? These are questions which every thoughtful citizen, every thoughtful schoolman must address to himself. To a frank consideration of them I invite you now in the hope that together we may find some course at once proper, feasible and promising.

At the outset we face the stubborn fact that war is somehow very strongly entrenched in the general attitude of the world. Some tell us explicitly that fighting and war belong to the very constitution of human nature and that any effort to eradicate war is therefore futile and in the nature of things must forever remain so. Others, whether or not they accept this position in its entirety, feel that prudence demands that we be prepared against possible wars. Prepared in material resources and contrivance, prepared in point of trained officers and men, adequate in number to hold our own in any possible emergency, prepared in such a patriotic attitude as will at all times keep the minds and hearts of the people sensitive to their country's call to war. Still others add the feeling that a robust, red-blooded morality must approve the moral heroism of warring sacrifices and that in some mysterious way such sacrifices are necessary to the complete realization of moral character, and that wars furnish the necessary opportunity for such moral development. And so it goes; there are many apologists for war, perhaps more unavowed than open. Deep and profound is the hold that warfare has on the world, on its governments, its in-

[1] The substance of an address delivered at the Friends Select School, Philadelphia, Pa.

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stitutions, its history, its literature, in the plans of the old, on the imagination of the young. War has somehow entwined itself almost inextricably, it would seem, down deep into the inmost sources of human conduct.

Is war an instinct, an ineradicable part of human nature? If yes, we can understand how war has succeeded in fastening itself so inextricably into the warp and woof of human interests and endeavor. But is it true that war is an instinct? Does a careful study of human nature support the contention? I am happy to be able to say no. Not claiming for myself original authority in this field, I have nevertheless studied the question at length, and I have availed myself, I believe, of the best that is known and thought on the subject. A distinction of terms will, I am sure, enable us to see the error of those who hold that war is thus founded in the essence of human nature. Rivalry and contest may well be admitted to be so inherent in human nature as to be ineradicable in human relationships. Anger too is instinctive, and the tendency to anger is probably ineradicable in most of us; but even this tendency can in most be subdued and controlled to within relatively harmless limits, as many among us to-day can testify. Altho rivalry and the tendency to anger are thus inherent in human nature, fighting is a different matter. Fighting to kill is very far from being an ineradicable instinct, so far indeed that most people nowadays seldom, if ever, feel such an impulse even as an inclination, let alone as an uncontrollable passion. Indeed, in time of war itself, the tendency to kill has to be acquired. During our late war learning to kill was judged by our competent military authorities to require careful teaching. Much thought was put upon it. Every care was taken that no contrary suggestion be even exprest. Every pacifistic tendency was ridiculed and otherwise subdued as quickly as possible. I am not here criticizing the action of our authorities; but I am pointing out that the procedure counted necessary in the army utterly belies and denies the theory that fighting to kill is an ineradicable instinct. The truth is that warring as

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the modern knows it is so very far from being instinctive that successful modern warfare has to be very carefully learned in the face of many very strong antagonistic instincts; while *morale*—the tendency to continue fighting in the face of these inner-antagonisms—can with great difficulty be maintained and, over any great length of time, only under favorable conditions. No, fighting to kill is not the uncontrollable instinct pictured to us; and modern warfare still less so. Every competent psychologist will, I believe, bear me out in this contention. Rivalry is inherent but not warring as it is now conducted.

What explanation can be given then for the strong hold that war has in the institutional life of the world? The principal explanation, I believe, is to be found in our cultural inheritance from the past, from the long struggle for supremacy among rival and contending groups. If we go back far enough in this history of civilization, we find small tribes constantly at war. Success in war came thus to be a chief means of survival, at times of survival on the physical plane, more often—especially later—of survival as a social and cultural unity. The group then that succeeded best in war succeeded best in maintaining unimpaired the unity of its cultural tradition. This tradition in turn had to do very largely with war and included war songs, stories, and festivals, as well as actual war practises. The songs, stories, and festivals served to call forth the martial spirit of the young and would contribute in no small degree to success in the field. Success—and the survival of the cultural group—thus depended not only on weapons and fighting skill, but also on the adaptedness of the cultural tradition to call forth and maintain an effective fighting spirit. In this manner literature grew up sounding the glories of war and singing the praises of its heroes. Moral teachers lent their aid. A great body of war-bringing culture was built up. Successful endeavors in one nation were copied by another; so that for many long generations the cultural tradition gave much, if not most, of its endeavor to building in the peoples

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those attitudes appropriate to the call of war and to its vigorous prosecution. To this day our folk ideals, transmitted largely by oral tradition from those earlier days, have no scorn greater than that meted out to him who refuses to fight on "due" provocation, and no acclaim equal to that given to the hero who dies gloriously in battle in behalf of his country. By the side of these warlike attitudes, scorn and praise in purely moral matters are too often utterly tame in comparison. Mankind has thus for very, very many years been devising—often unconsciously—ways of stirring men to war; and the efficacy of these has been at times only too evident. In our days Germany and France, in particular, have consciously used the public schools to further the process. In our own country many will in the next few years, consciously or unconsciously, be doing the same thing, being themselves caught in the strength of the war-loving tradition. National prestige has too often been used as the nucleus for such endeavors. Many indeed have been unable to separate military prowess from a proper national prestige.

An additional, tho more prosaic, reason for the hold war has among us is the support that military strength is counted to give to financial investments, especially in the more unsettled parts of the world. I shall not argue this question. I take it that no right-thinking person wishes anything more than fair dealing in such matters, and that this can best be got thru some form of impartial international action. But there seems very good evidence for believing that certain selfish interests among us prefer to have our country impose by force its own will in such disputed matters. How far this kind of influence goes, I can not say. Altogether we must admit that war even yet is strongly entrenched among us.

But because war is thus strongly entrenched, must we, therefore, accept it as final? By no means whatsoever. The situation is essentially hopeful. History fortunately gives us an instance where civilization has overcome another custom as strongly entrenched in social approval

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and much more firmly fixed in human nature than modern warfare. I refer to private warfare, whether of vengeance or in the form of duelling. The time was—and in comparison but recently—when each gentleman carried always a sword and upon occasion—slight or grave, as we now judge—was quick to use it in defense of himself or his honor. To resent a personal affront is far closer to original nature than is ninety-nine hundredths of modern warfare. Moreover social approval was so strong that any one then living could easily have said that private vengeance was ineradicably fixed in human nature and in human institutions; and the claim would have been far juster than any present day claim in behalf of war. So far have we moved from that day that it is difficult for us to feel the full force of the then general custom. Perhaps a quotation from Treitschke may help us to reinstate something of the old attitude as well as let us see how far we have moved from it. The country described is England and the time is about 1845:

> "A commercial spirit pervaded the whole life of the nation. That last indispensable bulwark against the brutalization of society—the duel—went out of fashion; the riding whip supplanted the sword and pistol; and this triumph of vulgarity was celebrated as a triumph of enlightenment." (Quoted in Schmitt, *England and Germany*, p. 163.)

If wars then need not be inevitable, what can the schools do to help avert them? The discussion naturally divides into two parts: (I) what shall we teach teachers (and other adults) in our higher institutions of learning; and (II) what shall we teach the pupils of our elementary and secondary schools and how shall we go about it? In connection with both we must keep clearly in mind the principle that "propagandism" is out of place in the public schools. The first part of the discussion, that relating to the teacher, is the longer. In so far as this means a paucity of suggestions for actual work with pupils, I regret it; but largely it points to the important fact that in all such matters the teacher is the strategic factor. If the teacher does not get the right point of view, does not see the social processes involved, we

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can have but little hope that the schools will play any part in abolishing war. We must, of course, with teachers, include superintendents, supervisors, principals, all who have any part in controlling the influences that shall affect the child. We have in mind, then, that teachers, school officials, all educated adults, shall be reached thru the teacher training institutions, colleges, or universities. Nor need any fear that we are proposing to "hand out" ready-made thoughts to be received and accepted without question. Exactly no; what we contemplate is such a discussion of pertinent facts as that the truth will carry its own conviction. Upon an impartial investigation we are content to rest our case. What point of view then may we expect our teachers to get as a result of impartial study?

First, that wars are not inevitable. This we have perhaps already sufficiently discust. We cheerfully admit that human nature—that is, human nature at birth—has not changed for many thousands of years and we are not expecting human nature in this sense to change in any near future. But psychology is with us in teaching that fighting (to kill) and still less modern warfare are so far from being ineradicable that the burden of proof lies the other way. Rivalry is inherent, but not warfare. And, as was further pointed out, private murder—whether as private vengeance or duelling—has been practically eliminated from modern civilization, altho in its way far more firmly fixed in human nature than is modern warfare. Moreover, our teachers must understand how it is our social heritage from the past that mainly leads people to war. If they understand this, they will know better how to counteract its evil tendency.

Next, I should have our teachers understand the inevitably continuing character of social integration. The industrial revolution began on a new scale the bringing together of people in larger and larger aggregates. As the home and work shop gave way to the factory, so this, in turn, is being joined with others in greater combinations. These enlarging agencies of production sell over wider and

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wider areas to ever larger and larger numbers. An increasing stream of inventions bring to consciousness an ever increasing number of wants. Means of communication and transportation keep pace so that the morning's paper give us the news from all quarters of the globe, while the daily life is increasingly dependent on distant parts of the earth for the products that are to sustain it. Men are thus brought together in ever greater and greater aggregates by a process which at the same time increases the number of respects in which each is dependent upon others for the satisfaction of constantly increasing wants. Integration and aggregation go hand in hand. And the tendency is ever growing. Unless civilization goes to pieces, we face an inevitable and unending process of integration. As the seven little kingdoms of earlier Britian had to unite in time into the Heparchy; as Scotland must in time unite her warring clans into one harmonious whole; as increased travel and exchange of goods and means of communication must make one nation of the thirteen struggling suspicious colonies; so we may say with certainty that the round world is bound in time to return upon itself. Let the integration continue, and sooner or later the ties that bind will outgrow the forces that separate; and the separate nations of the earth will realize that the united welfare of all demands the united action of all. The beginnings of formal joint action may be small; but the beginning is the most difficult. Continuing inevitable integration will at length see one joint compact strong enough to ensure order even in the face of sporadic and local selfish antagonisms.

From this point of view it will come to be seen that the notion of a final absolute and exclusive national sovereignty is unworkable, manifesting itself in fact as truly a nuisance in the world of practical affairs as it is vicious in the moral world. Is a nation subject to the moral law? Surely none among us would dare say no; this denial was our chief complaint against Prussia. If the nation is morally bound to order its affairs so as to respect the rights of other nations, then

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the notion of absolute sovereignty has already been given up. Mere will backed by power no longer suffices. The individual nation as truly as the individual man, if there be disregard of the rights of others, may—nay, must on moral grounds,—be forced to respect those rights. It is the duty of all to enforce a respect for the rights of each. The efficient means of enforcement may well be debated, but the right and duty only the anarchist can logically deny. When the practical recognition of the properly limited character of national sovereignty has come, we may then hope at last to see the end of the selfish exploitation of undeveloped nations, so provocative hitherto of the injustices within and of wars without.

We should further wish our teachers to see the utter fallacy and fatuity of competitive armaments. That they are provocative of wars would seem most evident. If we are "adequately prepared," our chauvinists will easily find excuses to use the shining swords, while the people generally will be the more easily persuaded that this or that weaker nation needs to be taught its just place in the world. As for maintaining peace, surely nothing could be more impossible and self-contradictory than a formula which bids each nation preserve peace by providing a larger preparation than its neighbors. The danger, the folly, and the waste of such a program unite with the preceding considerations in demanding an international compact strong enough to limit armaments and so make competitive preparedness as unnecessary in its appeal as it is unfounded in fact.

But our teachers will have to understand the dangers inherent in our position. Some among us would make of the Monroe Doctrine nothing short of a selfish imperialism. Hear the words of a foremost leader in our national Senate regarding this doctrine: "Its precise character, the extent, method and time of its application, the means of compelling its observance, all are matters of our high and uncontrolled will and sovereign prerogative. We, the United States, can not answer to any one else in respect of it. We use it when, as, and to the extent we need it. There can be no limitation

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upon it except our requirements, our will and our force of arms." Could the position of Prussia be more adequately exprest? Such a statement is necessarily an affront to our neighbors in the countries to the south of us; while it would make a bully of us. Not all of our press has always advocated wise international policies. A certain group of papers claimed the Cuban war as its own. The published life of John Hay makes clear his belief that the war was both unnecessary and avoidable. The interest that certain papers have taken in Mexican intervention is hard to reconcile with an honest desire for the good of all concerned. If the teachers understand how such propaganda are worked they will be better able to prepare the rising children to resist it.

Again, we wish our school people, teachers and officials, to place at its right valuation military training in secondary schools; to understand that physically it is probably inferior to other types of exercise, that morally the military type of discipline is more likely to be bad than good, and that we can not expect such virtues as respect for law to be developed by such obedience as the military man is likely to demand. Those who understand how moral habits and ideals are built will hardly lend themselves to such get-good-quick schemes as some are claiming for military training.

A most important part of the teacher's equipment in the coming years will be to understand the Great War. How its deeper causes lay in a vicious world policy, of which Germany gave only the worst specimen; how far such superficial causes as the wounded and endangered prestige of responsible statesmen could conspire with national selfishness to plunge the world into such an abyss; how much the war cost, in treasure, in men, in misery, then and now and hereafter; how America was stirred and sustained by unselfish idealism; how we hoped and planned to stop wars. It is no warped or one-sided treatment that we ask, only the full facts, the really significant facts. Granted this, we believe that our teachers and leaders will burn, as America did at its best, to abolish war.

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When we face the second part of our problem, what to teach the children, the difficulties increase. How can we teach our children to honor our men in their personal sacrifices—which were great—and yet teach the horrors of war? How shall we advocate a full peace program and yet steer clear of partisan disputes? How shall those who believe that wars can and should be abolished, avoid an improper propagandism? The answers to these questions are not easy, but I believe certain things are entirely proper. We can teach the causes of the war and its results in a way to make the children see that in this case at least war was a wicked shame on the part of those who brought it on, and a calamity unspeakable for all the countries more directly engaged. When it comes to our part, I believe we ought not to stress over much the atrocities of the Germans—we have too many children of German parentage in our midst, and we must look forward to the time when the world has turned its back on this frightful past. We ought to stress to the utmost limit that the facts allow the idealism which animated America in the part she played and then lead the children to see that the Armistice only rang the curtain down upon the first act in the great drama. Our powerful nation must help the world to see a better way to make its policies and settle its disputes. The unselfish mission of America to help the world to better things and lead the way—this, I think, is a program to which every teacher may and must give his every effort.

Next, when finally we have settled our partisan disputes about the League, then the teachers must do their utmost to make it work. For its success after all depends most on America. Any settlement made by our governments now is only a beginning, only the framework, as it were, the bony skeleton of a solution. The attitudes of our people must clothe this skeleton with flesh, give it sinews of strength, and breathe into it the breath of life. Our partisan disputes have left our older people divided. A created cynicism has brought doubt and sometimes mocking. It is the schools that must make good this national deficiency. We must

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build a rising generation that will put faith and zeal and success into this hope of the future. The reduction of armaments they must look forward to with approval. The growing generation must understand, too, that the League must and will grow. I need not say that, in the coming years, as we teach the history of 1919-1920-1921, we must not stress the divisions among our people in the matter. Too often have these divisions been too discreditable to teach to the young.

There are certain conceptions which our children should get in connection with our topic. First, is the awfulness of war. Taking care not to overstress this especially with the very young, I would still have them all—both boys and girls—arrive at a vivid conception of the pain, wounds, misery, filth, stench, which soldiers must endure, not overlooking the sorrows at home, all of which are inherent in war itself. Make it so that no future war will be entered upon lightly. Second, the conception that wars are unnecessary; if we only do not blunder, we need never have another war. Third, the inevitable social integration discust above as making inherently for a world compact. This will, of course, be suitable only for the advanced; but I believe they can easily grasp it. Fourth, the conception that an unlimited national sovereignty is a practical impossibility and a moral evil. Fifth, a liberal colonial policy. I should never use the word "own" to express the relationship of the United States to Porto Rico or the Philippines any more than to Alaska or the District of Columbia; because I can not approve the ownership of some men by other men. Finally, I should wish to build the conception that imperialism is a bad thing. If we have control over another group, it should be as trustees for their better welfare and not for our aggrandizement. In connection, I should particularly stress the forward move in the world's treatment of backward or disorganized peoples implied in the finer conception of mandates.

Moreover, there are certain ideals that we should seek in season and out to build, using thereto history, literature,

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geography, games, anything that will help. Space and time only allow me to name some. They are, I hope, self-explanatory. Fair play, the square deal, especially as applied to weaker nations; unselfishness in international relationships; peaceful processes of settling disputes, arbitration, international law, world organization; cooperation to the common good, reaching up to cooperation among nations; the mission of America to lead to better things; no more wars.

In addition to these ideals there are certain attitudes, settled ways of reacting to situations, that we wish to build: an interest in foreign relationships, worldmindedness, a new thing for us on this side of the water; sympathetic appreciation of other peoples; unselfishness in international affairs; a national conscience; sense of national honor (cleared of its all too frequent militaristic leanings). Such are the attitudes we would build. This is not the place to discuss how attitudes are built; but it may not be out of place to say that attitudes grow up in us only as we continue to act along the line of the attitude. We can thus develop worldmindedness only by continually taking the world view of questions. And so with others; we must act them if we would build them up in us.

It is clear then that the teacher is after all the key to the situation. If we are to succeed we must have teachers themselves imbued with the proper spirit and attitudes, possest of the requisite knowledge, and alive to the opportunities the school offers to lead the children into like spirit and attitudes. To this end there need be but little change in our present curriculum material, perhaps a study of other nations; in history, some new chapters to tell of the great war. When the League question is settled, we must add the proper documents regarding that. With the older children some specific attention should be given to our new international relationships. The main work will be done in connection with all our ordinary school work,—history, civics, geography, literature,—to build up in our children the requisite information, concepts, ideals, and attitudes. What we do, we must do in full appreciation of the many

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difficult elements involved. Democracy's schools must avoid partisan propagandism, but they must undertake this great work for a wider democracy.

WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK

TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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IV

CITIZENSHIP AND THE HIGH SCHOOL

To-day, as never before, the public is looking to the schools—and particularly the high schools—to take the lead in the great movement of Americanization and the development of qualities of citizenship in the young men and women of the on-coming generation. Despite many laudable practises, most public secondary schools are not systematically training young people for their civic responsibilities to the extent or to the degree that the age demands or that society has a right to expect. Good citizenship involves much more than knowledge about government and vague notions as to what one's personal rights and privileges are. Good citizenship consists of being able and ready to play one's full part in the cooperative activities of community, state and nation. It results from a combination of three factors, namely, (1) altruistic emotions, (2) correct ideas, and (3) desirable habits of response. In other words, sentiments, knowledge and will are the ingredients out of which good citizenship is compounded. To be sure, each of these elements requires special treatment to cause it to yield its best contribution. Thus sentiments need to be translated into convictions, knowledge into principles, and will into action. Given these operations, skilfully performed, good citizenship must inevitably eventuate.

The specific problem for the schools is: How can this task be accomplished? In answering the query, the first conclusion obviously is that the undertaking is not the work of a limited or exclusive group of individuals. It surely does not rest solely upon the shoulders of the superintendent, the principal, or the teachers of any given department of instruction. The problem involved is a common problem. It challenges the best thought and the best efforts of the entire instructional and administrative forces.

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In the second place, it is clearly obvious that, with the high school constituency as varied in character as it is, no single plan of procedure will be equally suitable and effective with all types of pupils. Individual differences among adolescents are pronounced. Youths are unlike in respect to capacities, potentialities, interests, temperament, ambitions, knowledge, experiences, modes of reaction and many other qualities. They yield to treatment in a manner and to a degree that are conspicuous because of their variabilities. Moreover, the entire educative process is one of slow development. Hence, it follows that training for citizenship must proceed by way of many avenues, must be couched in many forms, and must find applications in many types of human reaction.

Let it be granted at once that ordinarily it is difficult to separate completely the three elemental driving forces of the human spirit, namely, feeling, intellect, and will. Nevertheless, in the majority of human experiences, one of these factors is predominant. Let us, for the sake of clear analysis, segregate them here.

First, consider the problem of knowledge. Less than a century ago the German philosopher, Herbart, was preaching the doctrine that the learned man could alone be moral. For him, character—and hence citizenship—was solely a matter of ideas. Knowing what was advantageous and right guaranteed that the knower would inevitably do what was advantageous and right. Common sense has everywhere fully disproved the doctrine. Nevertheless, knowledge is power, not alone in shaping material ends but also in transforming the subjective life of individuals. Hence, the first requisite for good citizenship is an enlightened mind—particularly a mind enlightened in respect to social affairs themselves. For several decades now the study of man's relations to man in past ages has found a more or less conspicuous place in the program of studies of the high school. And this is well. History forms the background upon which alone can be cast the images of contemporary life processes among the members of the

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human family. If the principle of evolution be accepted as operating in the realm of human endeavors, it needs must follow that the social institutions and agencies and relationships of our own times are but the outgrowth of similar social factors that existed in an earlier day, and hence, that in order fairly to comprehend the social problems of our own times, a careful study of the origins and development of those factors as they existed in a more elemental stage is desirable, if not needed necessary. But history relates essentially to past events. Citizenship concerns itself essentially with present and future social conditions. Hence, it follows that history taught merely as history and without constant reference to current social problems and contemporary social institutions is likely to have little direct value as an agency in civic training. Taught with constant reference to American ideals of citizenship, to the development of free democratic institutions, to the worth of being free, and to the duties and responsibilities of citizenship in a free democracy, history does, of course, take high rank among the school subjects that seek to yield values for civic welfare.

In a similar way literature, science, the fine and practical arts, and doubtless some of the other subjects in the curriculum can, and should, be taught so that incidentally, at least, impressions regarding the individual's relationships and responsibilities to the state are made emphatic. Teachers of these subjects who do not consciously aim to make their classwork yield large social values are missing enviable opportunities and need to be awakened to a keener sense of their own obligations.

But neither history nor the other traditional subjects of the curriculum are the best adapted to yield the services here being sought. My plea is, therefore, that, in addition to all these branches of instruction, there be provided other separate and distinct courses dealing specifically with man in his social relations now and here. Among such courses are Community Civics, Elementary Political Science, Elementary Sociology, Elementary Economics, and Elemen-

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tary Industrial Geography. Community Civics and Elementary Political Science, in the sense of a study of governmental forms, have already in most schools an assured place, but the other branches mentioned have not. And yet true citizenship involves relationships of many other sorts than governmental. Indeed, government touches the average citizen in a specific, direct way but rarely. On the other hand, social, economic, and industrial problems press hard upon all. The questions of man's economic needs, the modes of production and exchange of economic goods, and the multiplicity of allied problems such as those relating to money and banking; interest, wages and rents; capital and labor; transportation; taxation—all these and scores of others enter into the every-day experience of most citizens. How can men and women be expected to assume proper attitudes towards these matters unless they be informed, and how shall they know unless they be taught? Likewise, the more strictly social questions of domestic unhappiness and divorce, poverty and crime, alcoholism and insanity, immorality and greed, ugliness and squalor, disease and death, confront one at nearly every turn in life's course of activities. How can one, therefore, be truly a good citizen if he remains in ignorance of, or in indifference to, the causes, preventives and remedies of these social ills!

To argue that Sociology, Economics, Political Science, Industrial Geography, are college subjects and can not properly be taught in the secondary school is to beg the question. Any subject can be taught to a normal being at almost any period of his life, provided only that it be presented simply enough. To paraphrase the famous dictum of Cassius: The fault, dear friends, is not in the subject matter but in ourselves and our methods that we are underlings as teachers and in the world of active affairs. Surely if we accept the judgment of one of the old Greek philosophers who, one being asked what studies a man should pursue, when young, replied, "those that he will use when he is older," then most emphatically the social studies in a very

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greatly expanded form are entitled to conspicuous places in the secondary school curriculum. Moreover, just because they are so valuable in the training for citizenship "it should be the explicit understanding," (to quote from a recent report of a sub-committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals) "that the importance of social studies is to be magnified at the expense of English, Mathematics, languages, and even Natural Science."

While, therefore, the social sciences as distinct branches of instruction must be given larger scope in the organization of secondary school curriculums, nevertheless, as previously stated, they must not be expected to carry the entire burden incident to giving information and training regarding citizenship. Every subject, even the most logical and formal, has its human elements, and can be made to explain and interpret some, at least, of the recurring social problems with which good citizenship is destined to be eternally grappling. It is our task, as teachers of those subjects, to see that such material is not neglected.

But, as I have already sought to bring out, mere information about the problem of citizenship is insufficient to guarantee in pupils correct attitudes and relationships towards public affairs. It therefore follows that the second necessary step in training for citizenship consists of the employment of such processes as will fire the human spirit with altruistic zeal. Here the problem takes on new elements, and enlarges its scope mightily. No longer can it be regarded solely as a classroom problem and be solved by the several classroom teachers working separately and independently. Tho each individual must continue to assume responsibilities for his own groups of pupils, the school authorities acting in a corporate capacity must now be called upon to take large control. Emerson once declared that "the only way to have a friend is to be one." Similarly, the only way to inspire enthusiasm and zeal in others is to be enthusiastic and full of zeal oneself. No doubt teachers who sincerely express sentiments

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of loyalty to just causes and otherwise exhibit attitudes and interests toward human endeavors of real significance do, by those very acts, inspire desirable emotions of citizenship in the hearts of their protegés. But, in addition to these personal influences, other forms of emotional appeal are surely needed.

Among the special agencies that can wisely be employed to attain the ends sought are: (1) the school assembly or auditorium meetings, in which stimulating talks, stirring music, and inspiring readings of choice literary material are given; (2) the representation of serious social conditions and social needs, together with the appropriate procedures for bettering them, exhibited by means of dramatics, pageantry, stereopticon slides, and moving pictures; and (3) actual visits by pupils under supervision of their teachers to localities, institutions, and agencies that reveal, in concrete forms, conditions and practises that challenge the interests and attention of all good citizens. I know of no superior agencies to these to develop the spirit of good will among high school boys and girls. The adolescent period is essentially a period of emotional development. Impressions made at this time are likely to become permanent and to constitute the foundational forms upon which the adult attitudes toward life shall rest. The assembly or auditorium exercises in particular can be made of almost infinite value, simply because they are so easily manipulated, permit of such frequent employment, and lend themselves to such varied forms of appeal. It is probably true that more significant life decisions have been effected by means of the chapel or assembly exercises than by all of the classroom recitation meetings combined. The high school that does not, therefore, make large use of this powerful character-making instrument is missing golden opportunities to help train the on-coming generation for the responsible duties of citizenship.

Especially important in this connection is the subject of music. It would be strange, and certainly unfortunate, if the new emotional life which the war fired and which found

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expression so noticeably in this form, both vocal and instrumental, are not perpetuated, and are not turned to use in-deepening and venerating the spirit of democracy. Fundamentally, people live in their emotions, and perhaps no art has so refining an influence on the emotions as has music. "I care not who makes the laws of a nation if I may write its songs," is a dictum which has sounded down thru the ages. Sentiment is more powerful than logic or courts of law. Music, as a weather-vane of sentiment, has recently shown its effect in patriotic mass meetings, in training camps, in the leisure hours of cantonment life, on marches, in trenches, in the battle charges themselves. How almost sacred have recently become *America, the Star Spangled Banner, the Marseillaise, the Battle Hymn of the Republic, Keep the Home Fires Burning, There's a Long, Long Trail,* and scores of other songs. Can the subject of music ever again be left in neglect in the public schools? The echoes of the war seem to reply "Impossible!"

Lastly, there is the obligation on the high schools to see that knowledge and sentiments relating to citizenship are translated into habits of conduct. "Faith without works is dead," said St. Paul years ago. Knowing what is good to do and wishing for its adoption will, obviously, insure nothing in the way of improved personal or national character. The way to learn to do is, not, as the old adage had it, merely to do, but it is assuredly to think and feel and then to do. Perhaps at present, training for citizenship in the public schools finds its weakest factor just here. Adolescents are peculiarly concerned with action. It fascinates them, it challenges them, it pleases them. And yet, only rarely does the high school furnish a sufficient number and range of activities to permit all types of minds to participate actively in citizenship-building experiences that are adequate in extent and variety. The correction of this fault must be the next reform in the organization and administration of secondary education.

At the present time whatever direct training is provided in the high school under this heading is found in general in

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connection with the regular school discipline, athletics, the school paper, certain literary and debating clubs, and occasional student organizations of a social character. No doubt much of the training that comes thru these agencies is exceedingly valuable. It tends to develop qualities of initiative, cooperation, and obedience to established rules. But psychologists inform us that for the most part training is specific, and hence that personal qualities thus developed in individuals will rarely function in other circumstances, unless, at the time the learning process is being pursued, specific connections with the more remote activities are consciously established. This being true, it is a fair question to ask whether the schools are to-day employing the various collateral student organizations to the extent which they might be employed, and whether, thru them, they are securing the transference of general powers in a manner that will necessarily contribute to the solving of particular social problems in the community, state and nation?

Surely, there are ways of exercising pupils' volitional powers so that the larger social ends sought may be reached. Among these are the various types of student self-governing agencies. Granted at once that freedom of self direction in the high schools is securable only within limits and must always be guided by the larger wisdom of adult members, nevertheless no organization in the school probably yields such values for citizenship as do the student councils, student houses of representatives, student chambers of commerce, student boards in control, and student school-city governing bodies. Thru such agencies students become practised in enacting, judging and administering law, and in dealing concretely with governmental forms and problems that are different from those of the larger world of adults only in their range and complexities. No school can, in my judgment, afford to be indifferent to student organizations of these sorts.

Among other agencies which offer promise of almost unlimited service for the civic training of youths are the Boy and Girl Scout Organizations. Inaugurated only a little more than a decade ago these two agencies have to-

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day established their hold upon young people in nearly every portion of the Union. The work they are performing is, too, (so far as it can be judged by a layman) remarkably effective. Nevertheless, for the most part, the local organizations are obliged to rely upon voluntary contributions to meet their necessary expenses, and upon the freely given services of busy men and women to assist in the administration of their program. But the Scout organization concerns itself with boys and girls of the early adolescent age, and is, therefore, dealing with the same individuals as do the high schools, and the continuation schools. Would it not be feasible and advantageous for the high schools now to take over the work of the Scout movement and incorporate it as a part of its regular functions? Scouting has passed the experimental stage. All that it demands at present is a chance to expand and deepen its influences. The high schools thru their facilities for physical training, places for social and business gatherings, athletic fields and gymnasiums, are admirably fitted to cooperate in this world-wide movement. Moreover, thru the public taxing power given to the school authorities, funds for the hiring of scout masters (whose office might very properly, it seems to me, be merged with that of the physical trainers) can very readily be obtained. The school equipment could likewise be utilized to serve the needs of both the school and the affiliated organization, and the benefits to-day being enjoyed by a relatively small number of boys and girls would be extended to include all youths of the adolescent age.

That something of this sort is being done in many parts of the country is evidenced by the reports from the 1180 secondary schools accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. According to these reports recently made 651 high schools already have the Boy Scout organizations in connection with their work, and 522 have the Girl Scout organizations. Is it too much to hope that these figures may mark a distinct universal tendency in secondary education in this country?

Among the obligations which a scout member takes upon himself is, as is doubtless well-known to all, the obligation

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of performing (as the code expresses it) one "good turn" to another individual daily. Adapting that idea to the problems of community welfare and to the matter of specific individual training for the duties of citizenship, I wish to make a plea for the organization, within each high school, of a Junior Good Citizenship League, one of whose obligations on its members shall be the doing of at least one good turn of a community nature weekly. Already in the North Central Association territory 76 schools have pupil organizations which are styled Civic Leagues or some similar name. There is, however, no evidence which goes to show that their constitutions include any definite obligations of the kind here mentioned. In almost every school, on the other hand, group action is occasionally secured when community matters of an emergency type are forced on the attention of the school authorities. Is it not possible and desirable that the occasional interest be expanded into a permanent interest? May not much of the philanthropic work within the community, matters connected with public health activities centering in the aesthetic and recreational affairs of the city or town, and similar quasi-public practical problems be referred to the boys and girls of the high school and to be dealt with by them, so far as is consistent and possible, thru the organization of a Junior Good Citizenship League? Is the field not a promising one for cultivation? Is not the harvest to be garnered from it an inviting one? Under an organization of the kind mentioned not only would a vast amount of benefit accrue to the local communities as communities, but the practical training secured by the members of the League would be almost invaluable to them. The success and worth of any such undertaking will be determined solely by the intelligence and effort that we older ones put into the undertaking. If we sow sparingly, we, of course, shall reap sparingly. In my judgment, however, the proposed project has much merit.

CALVIN O. DAVIS

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN,
ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

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V

THE TRAINING OF AMERICANIZATION TEACHERS

One of the greatest problems in the field of Americanization, to-day, is the training of teachers. The problem resolves itself into three phrases, namely: the present situation as to training Americanization teachers; the qualifications of an Americanization teacher; and the organization of teacher-training courses.

I

In 1919 a study was made concerning the training of teachers for Americanization work. It was then found that the total number of teachers in sixty-one representative cities engaged in Americanization work was 592, and of these 207 have had professional training of day school teachers and also special training in Americanization work. The fact has also been established that of these 207, 157 were in four cities out of the sixty-one. Thus fifty-seven cities reported only fifty public school teachers with special training for the work.[1]

Since some of the special training referred to above consisted of the "short-unit" variety composed of lectures or conferences, it may be said that we are only in the very beginning of the "re-training" stage. Few colleges or normal schools offer any work along this line, either, as shown by the Carnegie questionnaires. Those that do, offer courses of short duration and largely along the "lecture" method.

The institutes held lately in the state of California, however, are exceptions to the above statement. For here we use not only lectures and reading, but also observation, demonstration, and practise work. But even in these the courses are given by several people, each presenting the

[1] Proceedings of Americanization Conference, Bureau of Education, Dept. of Interior, Washington, D. C., p. 120.

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phase of the matter about which he knows the most. The result is a lack of unity. The course should be in the hands of one individual who is responsible for the aims and fundamental points of view and the other lectures should be supplementary.

Too often courses of study in this work have been handed down by college professors, who, altho authorities on sociology, anthropology, or racial backgrounds, may themselves never have taught an immigrant or may never have been in contact with him. The successful teacher, on the contrary, must be one who teaches thru the heart as well as thru the head, and who teaches the immigrant, not merely civics or English according to a successful method. Therefore, since teaching immigrants requires skill, which must be imparted, no teacher of English, however skilful, should instruct beginners, who himself has not had close contact with the alien in the classroom.

The majority of teachers also are "day" teachers, who undertake evening classes, in addition to a full schedule of work. With some teachers there is no lessening of vitality after a day's work. With others there is a tired feeling that does not make for the best teaching. This teacher should stay out of the work, for most of the immigrants themselves have put in a hard day's work and need a teacher who is "alive" and full of enthusiasm. Then, in addition, in many cases Americanization teachers are poorly paid, even more so than regular night school teachers, altho their work is far more specialized. Too many people without any experience or pedagogical training have attempted this work, just because they could speak English. Too often, too, teachers hold the idea that they can teach foreigners by the same methods that they can teach modern language students. The two are very different in method, for one is for cultural or disciplinary reasons and the other for use. Many teachers at present believe that the teaching of English or civics is all there is to Americanization. In fact this is only one phase. "Americanization can not be given; it must be achieved and its value lies not so

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much in its possession as the struggle to secure it, which makes one rich."[2]

II

Such is the condition of the teaching of the alien at present in most localities. Of course there are the exceptions, but I believe the above criticism of it is a justifiable one. Our problem, then, becomes one of adequate preparation of the Americanization worker, whether he be teacher of English to foreigners, conductor of citizenship classes, or (in California) "home teacher." What, then, are the qualifications of an Americanization worker? Since the work is highly specialized, it requires a teacher of special qualifications.

One of the most important qualifications of a teacher in this field is his ability to use personal persuasion. He must persuade these foreigners to buy his product. He must be able to show these people the advantages to themselves of learning English for use. He must be able to convince the alien of the benefits of citizenship in our country. In a word, he must be a salesman. The Americanization teacher must be a person of unlimited resourcefulness and energy. The foreign worker is usually tired and weary when he comes to our classes. The teacher must give him the "glad hand" when he arrives and when he leaves. He must mix and mingle with these alien people, discussing the problems and events of their daily activities. The teacher often holds these thru his own invigorating personality when all other methods have failed. A third qualification is that the teacher must be fully prepared in his subject. He must be able to give these people in a clear, forceful way those things which the alien comes for. He must be absolutely sure of his ground, for the alien is very quick to perceive any deficiencies in his instructor's preparation. If the alien does not get what he comes for, he will not stay, regardless of how much he values a knowledge of English.

[2] Proceedings of Americanization Conference, Bureau of Education, Dept. of Interior, Washington, D. C., p. 110.

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The teacher, furthermore, must be a person incapable of discouragement, for many discouraging problems arise in this work. The teacher must also have a sympathetic attitude toward the alien which does not take on the form of pity. He must be interested in many of the interests of the foreign born. He must know something of the countries and conditions from which the alien came and what this country has meant to him.

III

With these qualifications in mind, our next problem is the training of the Americanization teacher. The teacher must be trained in the needs of the alien and how to meet these needs both in method and technique. Two types of Americanization workers must be trained,—the leader or organizer, and the teachers of immigrants and of adult illiterates, whether in industry, home, or school. In preparing a course, one must also fit the needs of both the teacher already in service and the one just preparing to enter the field.

Courses can be given by state or local educational authorities, by universities, by normal schools, by city institutes, or other teacher-training agencies. The universities and colleges should train leaders and organizers in Americanization activities. Courses adapted to this field should be given as part of the year's program or during the summer session. They must give first-hand experience in teaching of the illiterate and the alien, and should equip themselves to handle this activity practically.

The field of the normal schools and training schools is the preparation of teachers in the Americanization work. It should be a part of the year's work. Observation and practise should be included in these courses. The state department should organize teachers' institutes to aid teachers already in service. This department should also determine the basis for certifying teachers, cooperating with the normal schools. They should likewise furnish assistance, thru a staff of experts, to small communities. The state departments should from time to time investigate and re-

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port the progress of training of teachers for Americanization work. The federal bureau, finally, should be a clearing-house from which bulletins should be sent out giving the latest and best experiments in teacher-training. The federal bureau should, in addition to assuming leadership, furnish money for the work.

With an organization for teacher-training along these lines, the courses could be made to fit the various functions of the various agencies. They should be adapted both to the purposes of the students, as well as the needs of the community. They should be developed along flexible and easily adapted lines for the problems of Americanization are so great and varied no stereotyped course would be useful. However, the following course may be offered allowing for various adaptations to meet local needs:

1. A background of our various immigrant peoples should be part of the course. This should not only include the history and causes of immigration to this country, but also the conditions that the alien left and those he usually finds in America. It should include the national characteristics and traits of immigrants as well as the foreigners' gifts to America.

2. The meanings and interpretations of Americanism and Americanization should find a place in the course. Here the development and growth of the Americanization movement should be undertaken. A discussion of our ideals, customs, and citizenship should be included. Conditions favorable and unfavorable to the Americanization movement should be studied.

3. Another subject of the training course should be the teaching of English to both beginners and advanced students, as to method and technique. A comparison of foreign languages with the English language should be made. A discussion of materials, visual and phonographic instruction, as well as the psychological considerations involved in teaching foreigners, should be made. The organization of home, school, and factory classes, should be given some attention.

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4. A study should be made of the federal and state plans of Americanization, as well as pending legislation should be undertaken. Industrial Americanization should be given a just part in the course.

5. Then, too, the whole subject of Americanization of woman, the "home teacher" work, and the community co-operation in Americanization work, must be given due consideration.

6. The qualifications of the teacher should be developed, as well as the training of the worker, in the sympathetic attitude toward the alien. The whole process of naturalization and the training in privileges and duties of citizenship and civic and personal hygiene should find a place in the course. Vocational guidance for foreigners is an important subject here likewise. Race amalgamation and methods of assimilation should be included in the course as well as the study of nationality and language itself. Notable Americans of foreign birth should be dwelt upon also.

7. Field work forms an important part of the course. This should consist in visiting police courts and courts of domestic relations involving foreigners; settlement cases involving immigrants; visiting foreign-speaking societies and neighborhoods; as well as practise teaching. At least twenty-four hours of practise teaching under competent observation should be required. This observation can well be conducted by a system of "sitting in," as is done in Akron, Ohio. In this system the supervisor "sits in" various classes at frequent intervals. The purposes of this method are (1) to determine the methods used by the teacher, (2) to discover his good qualities and to urge their capitalization, (3) to correct the weak qualities, and (4) to balance the program of the teacher properly. A system of practise teaching that has proved successful in Alameda, California, consists of first observing the work of a competent teacher, then assisting in the work, and finally taking charge of the class under the observation of the director.

ROBERT FLOYD GRAY

ALAMEDA, CALIFORNIA

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VI

THE FIRST MISSIONARY SCHOOL OF AMERICANISM[1]

There are two vital reasons for trying to stamp out illiteracy in America, namely, to aid the individual to be most useful to himself and his community and to counteract Bolshevism. In the southern communities there is practically no such thing as Bolshevism. The problem there is to aid the illiterate to make the most of himself in order to further the interests of his community. The native southern white is of good, pure American blood, and he has been American for many generations. From among these come about fifty per cent of the illiterate soldiers now enlisting in the Army.

As is pretty well known, there developed out of the World War the problem of dealing with the illiterate soldier, who, during the emergency, was included in the draft and who still is accepted for enlistment in the regular Army. Up to May first, 1919, the Welfare Organizations assumed the responsibility largely for the teaching of English to these illiterates, but at that date there was established at Camp Upton the first Recruit Educational Center, which became a definite military organization designed to train such men in the rudiments of reading and writing and elementary facts essential to becoming a useful soldier. There gradually developed a program which provided for a soldier's day, one-half of which was devoted to regular military activities and the other half to classroom instruction. The recruiting agencies of the Army set out definitely to encourage enlistment of this type of man with the view to making the Army of greater service to the Country. Enlistment for this school was first limited to the Eastern Department, then to all of the United States east of the Mississippi and soon was extended to the whole country.

[1] Since the above was written six other missionary schools, modeled after the one at Camp Upton, have been established by the War Department in various parts of the United States and the Upton School has been moved to Camp Dix.

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There naturally developed an antagonism on the part of a number of old Army officers to this innovation because it seemed to them that the Army was receiving an inferior type of soldier and, because, as they maintained, the Army was spending its money and efforts toward doing what the public schools ought to do. The first is not true; officers receiving those who have been trained testify to the high soldierly qualities of those men coming from the Recruit Educational Center. However, there can be no doubt that the public schools are largely responsible for the adult illiteracy. On the other hand, the objectors to this Americanizing enterprise by the Army failed to realize that such an activity by the Army would be a tremendous means of awakening the state and local authorities to the needs of establishing better schools. Undoubtedly the Recruit Educational Center at Camp Upton has proved in this respect a wonderful missionary enterprise, for there are available numerous data to indicate that the state and local communities from which are drawn the bulk of the illiterate white soldiers of long time American blood, have suffered a wounded pride upon awaking to the fact that the American Army had to do for their young men what they well could have done, and well know they ought to have done for these men themselves. As a result perhaps of the Army's activity during the emergency, as a result of the data gathered to show the tremendous percentage of illiteracy among pure blooded Americans, and because of the establishment and effectual execution of the educational program at Camp Upton, most of the states, especially some of the southern states, and local communities are spending considerable sums of money to improve their schools and to blot out adult illiteracy. Everywhere in the United States there has developed a zeal to make every man and woman, who is mentally capable, a master of the rudiments of the English language. Obviously among the strictly American type of illiterate there will develop thru these efforts at education a keener appreciation, a greater enthusiasm and a deeper respect for the traditions and ideals of America.

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One hears everywhere the term Americanization, which often means only the education of the foreign element in America, whereas the Army school at Camp Upton has demonstrated that Americanization refers quite as well to the illiterate man who is of strictly American blood. It should not be forgotten that there are tremendous opportunities in respect to this type of Americans. Certainly it is a travesty on the public school of this country that so large a percentage of its men should be unable to use the most vital tool of modern civilization.

Of course the Army has reached only the male adult illiterate. The proportion of female adult illiterates must be quite as great. Therefore, in the light of the influence of the mother in the home and the community, this distressing condition appears all the more appalling. The hope of the school at Camp Upton is not so much that it will train a few thousands of these illiterates to read and write English, but rather that it will use these few men as missionaries to arouse among the home communities the wish of the adults to learn to read and write and to afford decent opportunities for the coming generations to have reasonable facilities for education. With this in mind, the lessons presented in the Recruit School at Camp Upton center about the project of "a letter home in the man's own hand and composition at the end of two weeks." The later lessons also emphasize writing home and are full of suggestive statements to be written home in reference to the desirability of education and the opportunity to come therewith. Since these men do not have a very broad mental content, because they have not read, they naturally catch up these suggestions and write them home. Thereby they unwittingly spread the gospel among the home folk, among whom is sown the seed of a zeal for more education. These soldiers at the Recruit Educational Center likewise write letters suggestive of proper sanitary habits with which, on entering the Army, they are wholly unfamiliar, and which, prior to their letters, were unknown to their folks at home. Following are three samples of such lessons.

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My Dear Father:

When I came to the army I was not strong. Now I can drill all day and I have gained ten pounds. I did not go to school at home but I go to school in the army. When I entered the army I could not write my name. Now I can write a letter to my sweetheart. I have read a few letters by Theodore Roosevelt to his boys and I want to learn to read some speeches by Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States.

———— ————

Dear Nellie:

It has been a long time since I have had a letter from you and it has been a much longer time since I saw you last. I made an application several days ago for a furlough, but I must take my turn with every other soldier. I think it will not be very long before I can come. I would like very much to see you, and I hope you want to see me.

I am sure you will find me looking better than when I left. I take more care of my appearance than I used to take. I have learned to brush my teeth, to keep my head and shoulders up, and to keep my uniform neat and clean. I wish I could get my teeth to look as clean and as pretty as your teeth. When I come I want you to see what the Army has done for me. Nellie I still like cake.

———— ————

Dear Uncle Abe:

The other day we had a great argument in the class room when the teacher asked us to name the greatest American. Jonah said he was George Washington, Zobo said he was Abraham Lincoln, Pedro said he was Theodore Roosevelt, but Tom was sure he was Woodrow Wilson. When the recitation was ended the question was not settled and some of us argued it that night in the barracks.

We have read some of President Wilson's speeches, and we want to read many more of them. We also want to read Lincoln's Gettysburg speech.

I just learned today that Abraham Lincoln was a poor country boy, and that he did not have so good a chance to go to school as I have. He sat up at night and learned to read without a teacher after he had worked hard all day in the field or in the woods. If Abraham were living today I am sure he would be proud of our school here, and he would be proud to see us learn to read and write English, for he would know that is a hard job.

Mingling with these fifty per cent of "American" men are the remaining fifty per cent of men who can not speak English. In spite of the fact that for class purposes there would be some advantages in segregating all the illiterates here in two groups, English and non-English speaking, as had been tried out for some while, such a method of classification would defeat, and actually did defeat, the very pur-

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pose of the school, namely Americanization. Indeed, there had grown up a very definite gap and a feeling of antipathy between the non-English man and the English speaking man. Men of limited experience and educational training which most of these men possess were not able to see the reason for such segregations, and naturally thought of it only in terms of racial and national differences.

In order to cement the two groups as closely as possible and to illustrate concretely to them in an effectual way that Americanization does not discriminate between languages and races, but rather that it emphasizes the equality of opportunity to all; and in order to hold out to the men that the real principle on which the American Republic is based is that of native ability of the men; the school was recently reclassified by the writer on the basis of intelligence rating. Of course not merely from the viewpoint of Americanization has the advantage of such classification been desirable, but from the viewpoint of the learner it has proved most effectual. The men on entering the school are first classified on the basis of their literacy as to grade. Within the grade they are assigned to sections in accordance with their intelligence rating on the basis of the Army tests. In the first grade, for example, there are four sections, with a very bright section, a very dull section, and two other sections between. This scheme has proved very satisfactory, for the men of the best section can advance about three times as fast as the men of the poorest sections. Furthermore, knowing the relative intelligence of any section, the Director of Education can measure with considerable ease the efficiency of the teacher of that section.

Altho the non-English men of the school have had, as a rule, certain experiences and habits that have differed slightly from those of the typical Southern boy who represents the American type, these men respond to the type of human appeal and suggestiveness that pervades the course of study in about the same manner as the American type. One thing is certain, in spite of the fact that approximately fifty languages are represented in this school, from all cor-

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ners of the earth, and that many of these men before coming here have been exposed to the vilest views of radicalism and unrest, there is no such thing as Bolshevism in the school. The men speak with pride of America and they hiss with scorn at the very name "Bolshevism" or "Soviet."

From these men—more than sixteen hundred of them now—go out letters to their home folk spreading enthusiasm for America and carrying the suggestions which are caught up from the classroom thru the recitations, and thru the lessons which are built upon propaganda for America. By such means, there inevitably is being sown some good seed on good soil. It is not enough that every American should learn to read and write, but, while learning to read and write, he should develop enthusiasm for the best principles of his Country. There long had been and still lingers a belief on the part of many ardent schoolmen and ethical teachers that there can be developed thru means of proverbs and varieties of statements, a feeling of patriotism. In other words it has long been assumed by many that to know certain facts in terms of words is to get a feeling for what they represent. Of course, anybody who reflects upon this can not seriously believe it. Virtue, patriotism, Americanism can not be taught by mere preachments from the teacher. Only when there is an emotional reaction called forth can there be developed the desired results.

It should be noted that it is strictly a human tendency to build up a defense against being preached to and that it is also a very pronounced human tendency to like to preach. With these two principles in mind the courses of the school of the Recruit Educational Center have been built up. The purpose is to make every man his own preacher, so that from his own suggestions he will feel and do the things desired of him. He will then become so enthusiastic over this that the suggestion of his own conduct, communicated to his closest friends, will be caught up by them, and they will in turn become effective exponents of what they have chosen to believe. A large number of letters actually written home have been studied in the school with a view

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to determine how nearly the theory upon which the lessons here have been written have proved themselves. The results are even beyond the most optimistic expectations.

Moreover, writing such letters not only develops a healthy attitude toward the American customs and ideals but stimulates among the non-English men, as well as among the "American" men, a zeal to learn to read and write. Therefore, every illiterate soldier who writes home becomes a missionary, and in most cases a most effective missionary, for universal education. Because of the rather highly organized activities in the local communities thruout the country to offer opportunities for education to adult illiterates, this missionary contribution by the War Department, thru the Recruit Educational Center, can not fail to be of greatest aid to the home organized efforts in Americanization. Like an endless chain, the first missionary school of Americanism at the Recruit Educational Center has spread the gospel of real America thruout the country.

GARRY C. MYERS

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION,
CLEVELAND, OHIO

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VII

DISCUSSIONS

EDUCATION VERSUS WAR

On the skyline of Europe ragged clouds at midnight blotted out the shuddering moon. War clouds went leaping across the livid east; when the flame of dawn approached, the world awakened to one of the bloodiest conflicts that it had ever known. "Der Tag," long toasted by military Germany, had arrived. Cannons roared and belched forth their molten message of death. WAR desecrated the heavens above, the earth beneath, and the seas under the earth. A war, the horrors of which it is impossible to describe; a war which disregarded the sacred rights of humanity and the cherished principles of international law and honor. Education caused that war! Education helped win that war! Education must end—all war!

The world war was the result of an education; an education the ultimate aim of which was to instil into the minds and hearts of a noble people wrong ideals, ideals which led Germany to dream of world supremacy and power. This type of education, sown from the schools, the pulpit, and the press, taught that world conquest was justifiable, even if the laws of humanity had to be ignored to attain that end. This type of education devised new means to kill, to devastate, to conquer and to destroy. It was an education which taught that Germany, as a nation, had a God-given right to impose its culture upon all nations of the world.

The Prussianization of Germany, with the ends of Germanic conquest in view, with its remorseless hatred, and its savage intensity, was fostered and nurtured by the German schools. A Prussian maxim says, "Whatever you would have appear in the life of a nation, you must first put into the schools." Thus arose an aggressive and ruthless policy of expansion, which was used as a tool for world mastery.

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The children of the German schools were taught to cherish and foster a dream of a world empire, of a Germany extending from the North Sea to the Persian Gulf, a Germany glorifying Prussia and the House of Hohenzollern. The German people were taught to believe that a war was to be forced upon them, that their Fatherland was in great danger, and that war must come for their liberation. German boys were taught to believe that war was the noblest expression of human activity, that war was beautiful, that war was the Heaven of young Germany. Thus, as a result of a nation's education, Europe was plunged into the bloodiest conflict of its history.

Autocracy sent forth her challenge. America, educated in the principles and ideals of Democracy, answered. Because of those ideals that America held so dear, she sent money, food, clothing—and her boys—all that she had and all that she loved, in order that freedom and democracy should not perish. Soldiers died for a cause, born on the blood-stained fields of Europe, and the cause of that war was a wrong type of education. Millions of lives were sacrificed on the altar of Democracy, that democratic institutions and free people should not perish, and from the lips and hearts of humanity came the cry, "Would that this were the end of war!" To us, the living, is left the unfinished task of those who gave their lives to see to it that their sacrifice was not made in vain, and this task is to end all war forever. To attain that end we must destroy the cause of war. It would be pitiful indeed, if after all this bloodshed, all this sacrifice, there should still remain the possibility that such a war might have to be fought again. How then are we to destroy the cause of war? By preparing the citizens of to-day to solve the problems of to-morrow —the problems of world democracy—solved thru the foundation of all free government—the public school.

The world was involved in war because the world did not prepare for peace. Neither the horrors of war nor financial exhaustion can end war. Arbitration has failed because those who made the laws had not the moral integrity to

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uphold them. The cry has been, "Preparedness for War." The cry now is, "Preparedness for Peace." Humanity is looking to the United States to take the lead in the abolition of war. The insistent hour places before us a duty to which we must respond, and from which we must not shirk. The greatest remedy for war is the intelligent education of the people. Failure in this spells defeat for future international democracy. The great duty then before us is to make intelligent citizens, without which there can be no true democracy. We must adopt as deliberate a campaign of education to end war as Germany did to cause war. This campaign of education must reach out to the people thru the avenues of the home, the press, and the pulpit, radiating around the foundation of education—the public school.

In the homes there must be sown seeds that will produce a lasting brotherhood of man. The home must be thought of, not as a unit in itself, but as part of a larger unit, the state, the nation, the world. In the home there must be developed ethical standards of right and wrong, of fairness and good-will to mankind reaching out to all parts of the world. We must develop the individual in such a way that he will become a part of a unit, which has for its motto, "I am my brother's keeper." We must develop humanity, thru the individual, in the home, and in the school.

We must make an intelligent study of the public press, of the proper interpretation of its contents, and of its organization, explaining to the children the influence of ownership in controlling the trend of public opinion. Pupils must be led to think for themselves, rather than accept the contents of the press literally. We must demand a public press that prints things as they are, freeing itself of the influence of politics and syndicate interests. Thru the press we must arouse the intelligence of common man, so that he can think and act intelligently in the light of recent events. The citizens of the future must acquire the habit of thinking, not only as citizens of their own country, but as citizens of the world.

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Thru the church we must educate for peace. There must be less talk and more action, less theology and more "living up to the principles of Christianity." It is not doctrine and theology that are needed to-day, as much as it is creative thinking on the part of individuals, that will cause them to recognize the real brotherhood of man. There must be a reconstruction, a building up of that which is lacking, and a tearing down of the partitions of creeds and sectarianism. We must avoid the materialistic trend of Germany. Germany's religion was a religion gone wrong, of a double standard of ethics, one for the individual and one for the state. In the new religion to come the ethics of Christ must apply everywhere. We want a religion presented on a plane that common man can follow and apply, a religion in terms of life, one that lives with the people. We want a religion that aims at the destruction of hate and the instincts which man shares with the lower animals—the instinct to kill. We must have a religion which teaches the practical application of "Peace on Earth, Good Will to Men." We want a moral equivalent for war. Then will the citizen of to-morrow, with head proudly raised, and shoulders squared, say, "The World is my country and Mankind are my brothers."

In the schools, thru literature and history, we must teach new concepts; less stress must be laid on the destructive, and more stress on the creative institutions. We must turn to creative enterprises and social undertakings rather than wars and campaigns. We must educate for social service, for harmony of public and private interests. Invention made the world a neighborhood; education must make the world a brotherhood. We must educate not only for individual success, but for the interests of society as well—not military conquest, but educational conquest. We must teach the children the essentials of true democracy and a patriotic reverence for their country and its ideals. We must teach a true patriotism, a patriotism that stirs the deepest emotions of the human heart, a patriotism created by the study of the principles of true citizenship.

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We must teach an Americanism that will maintain peace by intellectual and moral preparedness. Teachers must feel that they are consecrated now as never before to the work of preparing these future citizens. Teachers must arise to the occasion and let the world see them at their posts, at the altar of freedom, and teach in such a manner that the sacred fires of patriotism and civic righteousness will be forever guarded. As education in wrong standards has caused war, so education in right standards will and must end war. From the chaos and devastation of the recent world struggle there must be built a new education, there must arise a new citizenship based upon universal brotherhood of man. Thus will education become an antidote for war. Polygamy and slavery have been abolished thru the education of the people, but the greatest blot on civilization to-day remains—the killing of civilized men by men in the settlement of international disputes, yet thru education even this blot may be removed.

The call of suffering humanity is heard. America will answer. Let us then appreciate the inheritance that is before us, and resolve that the sacrifices made shall but be the price paid for a higher civilization that is to come. Then, when the great Creator shall write in his Record of Records a list of great and Godlike nations, there will be found in that glorious assemblage, one nation whose emblem is a standard consisting of forty-eight stars in a field of of blue, thirteen stripes of alternate red and white, red for patriotism, white for purity, blue for peace, the Stars and Stripes of Freedom—The American Flag. To such an end let us dedicate our services. May America, first to appeal to the justice, fairness, and intelligence of her sister nations, be remembered in history as greater than Persia, greater than Macedonia, greater than Rome; yea, greater than all the conquerors of the world. Education, will then—have accomplished its mission.

HENRY C. WEGNER

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN,
MADISON, WISC.

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LESSONS IN COMMUNITY AND NATIONAL LIFE

The great question facing the schools to-day is, "What can we, as teachers and parents, do to help prepare the boys and girls of the United States to perform their part as citizens of one of the greatest democracies in the world?" During the last few years the schools of the country, as well as other institutions and organizations, have undergone great changes. Many of these changes have been beneficial, while some have, no doubt, been detrimental. The various functions of the school, however, were emphasized during the great World War as they had never been emphasized before. People realized as never before what a great democratizing agent the public school system is and may be. We have learned that, in order to maintain and to promote our national aspirations and our ideals of democracy, we, as a nation, must begin at the bottom—with the community—the social, political and economic foundation of modern society.

During the school year of 1917–18, the Bureau of Education, in connection with the United States Food Administration, published a series of lessons in Community and National Life. This material has something more than a mere transitional wartime value. The plan of the work and much of the material furnishes an admirable supplemental course in problems of citizenship. For this reason the schools may very profitably continue the use of these lessons. There are many schools thruout the country that do not know about these lessons and consequently do not have the opportunity of using them. Others have heard of them, but have not carefully examined them. They have the idea, that the material was arranged primarily for wartime use, and, now that the war is over, believe that the lessons are useless. It is for the purpose of disposing of these erroneous beliefs, and to point out a method of using this material, that this article is written.

The following plan has been quite successfully used: The subject matter of the leaflets was organized under seven main topics with twenty-four sub-topics. This divi-

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sion makes it possible to correlate these topics with history, civics, geography, and English. The writer used the correlation scheme in the history and civics classes. Section "A" was used with the American History class, in the Senior High School; Section "B" was used with the Community Civics class, in the Junior High School; and Section "C" was used with the American History class, in the Junior High School. One day a week, usually Friday, was given to the study of the Community Leaflets, supplemented by current news from newspapers, magazines, and other periodicals. To illustrate, the topics on transportation in the textbook were easily supplemented by lessons in the leaflets, and articles on governmental control and operation of railroads and steamship lines, which are being and will continue to be discussed in the current papers, are worthy of attention. Some teachers prefer to give no separate day to the leaflets, but to use them in connection with the daily textbook recitation as the opportunity arises. There is a possibility that in using this method the teacher may fail to give the emphasis to the leaflets that their importance warrants.

The treatment of the subjects as outlined above made them intensely interesting to the classes, because they heard these same topics mentioned at home and on the streets. They knew something about the question other than what was given in the leaflet or in the textbook. This encouraged them to think over and discuss the questions with enthusiasm. These recitations gave the pupils an abundant opportunity to express their own individual ideas and opinions, which made the Friday recitations very popular.

As one looks over the available material on subjects of this kind, one is struck by the orthodox treatment of the subject matter. These topics that are so full of the human element are treated by the great majority of writers as a strictly impersonal manner. In history, principles and movements are emphasized, but the effect upon the lives, homes, ambitions and health of the human being is kept

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in the background. These leaflets have as their major motive the "humanizing" of the economic and political data presented. That is, the social side, as well as the strictly historical development of industry and constitutional evolution, is discussed. The effects upon the people of these great economical and political changes are noted. In the majority of the textbooks in Civics the machinery of government is treated in a more or less technical and uninteresting manner. The pupil is expected to study and understand the constitutional powers and duties of the executive, judicial, and legislative branches of our federal and state governments, our complicated revenue system, the working of the electoral college, and other subjects that tax the more mature kinds of graduate students. The lessons in Community Life discuss such questions as, "How has machine industry affected the workers?" as well as "How has machine industry increased our industrial importance in the world?" The pupil is encouraged to work out answers to such questions as the following: What does the citizen owe his community in regard to cleanliness, precaution against disease, obedience to law? What does the community owe the citizen in regard to pure water, sufficient light, good roads, places of recreation, etc.?

Accompanying the organization of topics as given below are a number of references which may be used to give fuller discussion of some of the topics if the teacher cares to do so and has sufficient time. One, two, and in some instances three, recitation periods may very profitably be given to the "lessons."

OUTLINE OF A COURSE OF TWENTY-FOUR LESSONS IN COMMUNITY AND NATIONAL LIFE

I. Industrial Character of Pioneer Life.

Lesson 1. The Work of the Pioneer Farmer.

Lesson 2. The Spinning and Dyeing of Textiles in the Pioneer Home. (Especially wool and linen.)

Lesson 3. The Methods of Transportation and Communication in Pioneer Days.

References; National and Community Leaflets: C–2; C–27; C–28; B–2; A–2.

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Coman, Katharine: Industrial History of the U. S.
Earl, Alice M.: Home Life in Colonial Days.
Tryon, R. M.: Household Manufacture in the U. S.
Bogart, E. L.: The Economic History of the United States. Chapters III, IV and XV.

II. The Trend of Modern Industrial Development.

Lesson 1. Inventions and Patents—Machine Industry.
Lesson 2. The Development of Typical Industries,—Steel, Packing, Textiles, etc.
Lesson 3. The Concentration of Industries in Certain Regions; Causes *e.g.*, Gary, Chicago, Detroit, Pittsburg, St. Louis, New York, etc.

References: National and Community Leaflets: C–9, 10, 11, 12.
B–1, 6, 9, 12, 25.
A–8, 24, 25.
Burne, D. D.: Story of Great Inventions.
Burton, C. P.: Gary, a Creation. Indep. Vol. 70, pp. 337–345.
Casson, H. W.: Romance of Steel.
Mason, O. T.: The Origins of Invention.
Traps of the Indians.
Woman's Share in Primitive Culture.
Smith, J. R: The Story of Iron and Steel.
Bogart, E. L.: Chs. XI, XII, XIII, XXVII, XXVIII
Marshall, L. C.: Industrial Society. Chs. IV, VII, X, part 1.

III. The Relation between Modern Methods of Transportation and Communication, and Modern Industrial Development.

Lesson 1. The Development of the Railroad, the Steamboat, the Steamship, the Motor-Truck, and the Aeroplane.
Lesson 2. The Development of and the Economic Importance of the Telephone, the Telegraph, Ocean-Cable and Wireless.

References: National and Community Leaflets: C–1. B–10. A–26.
Casson, E. N.: The History of the Telephone.
Cressy, Ed.: Discoveries and Inventions of the 20th Century.
Davis, J. P.: The Union Pacific Railroads.
Watson, T. A.: The Birth and Babyhood of the Telephone.
Bogart, E. L.: Chs. XXIV, XXV.

IV. The Importance of Capital in Modern Industrial Life. Money and Banking.

Lesson 1. Borrowing Money for Modern Industrial Enterprises. Stocks, Bonds, Notes, etc.
Lesson 2. The Commercial Bank and Modern Industrial Enterprises.—
Lesson 3. The Service of Money, the Value of Money—in the Home, in the Community.

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Lesson 4. Private *vs.* Public Control of Wealth.

References: National and Community Leaflets: C–22, 23, 24; B–22, 23;
A–6, 20, 21, 22, 23.

Hayward, W. R.: Money, what it is and how to use it.
Kirkpatrick, E. A.: The Use of Money.
Marshall, Wright, and Field: Materials for the Study of Elementary Economics. Chapter V.
Bogart, E. L.: Chapters XVII, XXVI.
Marshall, L. C.: Chapters III, V, XIV.

V. Organization in Modern Industrial Life.

Lesson 1. Labor; Trade Unions; Industrial Unions.
Lesson 2. Employers' Organizations—Main types.
Lesson 3. Consumer's Leagues and Associations.
Lesson 4. Trade Agreements and Arbitration.

References: National and Community Leaflets: C–18, 30; B–29: A–1, 3, 17, 28, 29.

Bogardus, E. S.: An Introduction to the Social Sciences.
Labor and the New Social Order: New Republic, Vol. XIV, 2–16–'18.
Bogart, L. I.: Chapters XXIX and XXXI.
Marshall, L. C.: Chapter IX.

VI. The Social Conditions which have Resulted from our Industrial Development.

Lesson 1. Concentration of Large Populations in Large Cities; Causes; Results; Problems.
Lesson 2. Women and Children in Modern Industry—Legislation concerning them.
Lesson 3. The Problem of the Immigrant—economic, social, political and educational.
Lesson 4. Employment Agencies. The Problem of Employment. How shall the question of unemployment be handled?—by Private Agencies, or by Public Agencies—Local, state, federal.

References: National and Community Leaflets: C–3, 20, 26, 29, 31, 32.
B–4, 11, 20, 28.
A–4, 9, 15, 27.

Nolen, John: A Good Home for every Wage Earner. American Civic Association, Washington, D. C.
Abbott, Edith: Woman in Industry.
Child Labor in the U. S.: No. 1, Child Labor Legislation in the U. S., 1915.
Henry, Alice: The Trade Unions and Woman.
Abbott, Grace: The Immigrant and the Community.

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Andrews, John B.: A National System of Labor Exchange.
Weaver, E. W.: Vocations for Girls.
Bogart, E. L.: Chapters V, X, XVIII, XXX.
Marshall, L. C.: Chapters X, XI—Part II and III.

VII. Law and Order.

Lesson 1. The Evolution of a Legal System.
Lesson 2. Federal Administration.
Lesson 3. Municipal Government.
Lesson 4. Citizenship and Government.

References: National and Community Leaflets: C–14, 17, 19.
B–17, 18, 19, 13, 14, 16.
A–12, 13, 16, 17, 18, 19.

Other References which treat these subjects in the "modern" method.

Hughes: Community Civics.
Ashley: The New Civics.
Magruder: American Government.
Bruere: The New City Government.
Young: The New American Government and Its Work.
Adams, Henry C.: A Description of Industry.

J. Freeman Pyle

University of Chicago,
Chicago, Ill.

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VIII

REVIEWS

Education for democracy—By Henry Frederick Cope. The Macmillan Company. 1920. 275 p.

In this period of disillusionment and disappointment, the aftermath of war, it is cheering to find a confident idealist. Mr. Cope sees the road to a more perfect society by the path of education. By education society is consciously to shape the rising generation into the ideal democracy. "Democracy is more than a form of government; it is a social ideal, a mode of life and a quality of the human spirit; therefore it can not be imposed upon a people; it must be acquired. Democracy is social self-determination directed toward ideal ends. It is the civil organization of a common good will. It is an attitude of mind which holds that the highest good lies in the good of all, that the aim of all being is common well-being. It is a faith which holds that a common good will may control all society. It is an ideal which rises in the minds of free people and depends on their wills and their wisdom for its expression in social life. Hence it has a fundamental interest in education as the means by which people gain vision, develop a social will and organize their purposes effectively."

Contrary to the confident assumption of most Americans, we have not yet achieved democracy. "We have some democratic institutions, but we do not have a democratic order of society." "We can not have such an order so long as society permits avoidable injustices, so long as it exploits the weak, builds fortunes for the few out of the extremities and adversities of the many, permits one to reap where he has not sown, to enjoy riches that others have earned and are not permitted to enjoy, gives larger rights to the rich than to the poor and continues to regard the child as largely a negligible social factor." . . . "Democ-

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racy waits for a generation controlled by a social view of all life and by a common social good will."

That coming generation is to be trained not only for general culture and for business efficiency but for social thinking and social action. For this purpose the young people must have a curriculum made up of subjects chosen for their social value. The subjects must each be taught so as to realize not only cultural and vocational, but spiritual values. For example, mathematics must create reverence for the immutable laws of the universe and also in its practical applications teach honesty and fairness in social relations.

More important than the classroom studies in training for democracy are the discipline, government and organization of the school. "A school is a little world. It is the child's most immediate and impressive world. By its character it is determining the meaning of all his worlds." . . . "If at any time one finds that kindness, consideration for others, social cooperation, earnest truth-seeking and conscientiousness of social standards for conduct become current on the playground and amongst student groups, it is usually safe to look for the causes in ideals which have grown out of actual experience in school work." . . . "But the value of all organization and government will depend on the degree to which it arises in the pupil's will. In this sense it must be self-government." . . . "If the schoolroom means the arbitrary regulation of his life, then social living is likely to mean that he will be good just so long as society succeeds in regulating him, in keeping an eye on him and a rod over him." What the author plans for the school he applies also to the college in a more advanced form.

The school and college are not alone to be held responsible for education for democracy. The author develops a community program in which a part is to be played by the home, the church, the community center, and a community council. The last mentioned is to be an organization of citizens to coordinate and focus all other activities to the end that

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the community shall consciously train itself for "the realization of full social living."

Education for democracy is to the author's mind a process of moral and religious training. It is the spiritual values that are to be sought in the school subjects, in the school activities, in the education afforded by the home and the community at large. The book, therefore, becomes a treatise on moral and religious education. The author so defines democracy and social living as to make them equivalent to the living of the truly Christian life. The danger of basing his theory of democratic education on religion is that his definition of religion might not be acceptable to all. Religious education suggests church and creed, as he admits. But he tries to frame a general ideal of religious society which would suit everybody. However, it is difficult to believe that mankind has yet reached the stage where it can accept a general ideal of religion. He makes the term "spiritual" interchangeable with "religious" and that is what he really means. The emphasis on the spiritual side of education is sorely needed and no one really spiritually minded, no matter what his creed, can fail to be moved by the ideals set forth.

The feeling which overtakes one when about halfway thru the book is resentment at the time spent in order to gather the author's ideas. His appeal would be much stronger if it were spread over one half of the two hundred and seventy-five pages. One returns constantly to the same idea re-phrased and presented in a different connection. Such repetition of thought is wearisome and is wasteful of the reader's time. Anyone who could not get the idea with one good strong statement would be incapable of the resolution to read thru a dozen. There is no index.

If the reader possesses patience, the book is well worth reading. It is a thoro exposition of modern educational ideals. The chapters on "The Schools and Moral Training," "Spiritual Values in School Studies," and "Spiritual Values in School Activities," are especially interesting. The tedium of the way is much relieved by the author's felicity in

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phrasing. Every chapter contains quotable passages. "We train youth to shun the split infinitive with holy horror, but we care not, educationally, whether they separate their neighbor's families or their fortunes. We tithe the mint and anise of dead conjugations and neglect the living principles of daily conduct. We are so burdened with learning we have not time to learn to live." . . . "Democracy is not a system with a soul; it is a soul which works out its system. Democracy is in the whole what man should be in the singular." "For democracy is not only social organization for the good of all, but social organization for that end as determined by the will of all and secured thru the work of all."

JESSIE C. EVANS

THE WILLIAM PENN HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS,
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Finding a way out—By ROBERT RUSSA MOTON. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1920. 295 p.

How slow we are to appreciate the power of simplicity. What play on the boards to-day is more bare and simple than Drinkwater's Abraham Lincoln, and yet what play is more moving and powerful? The reader of Dr. Moton's new book *Finding a way out*, whether friend or critic, will doubtless have a sense of disappointment as he reads the opening pages. We expect a great deal from Dr. Moton. His topic is too vital to be trifled with. We begin to read, and we find the simple chronology of a Negro boy and his American ancestors. True, the story is interesting, and it grows more interesting as we turn the pages. But we do not see how they justify the title of the book. Yet long before we close the book we are gripped with the revelation of a great personality, a thrilling situation, and a compelling philosophy. We follow the road of a faithful man's life and find it is the way out.

The power of the book lies in the fact that Dr. Moton's life not only represents the philosophy which he proclaims, but it shows the process of the development of that philosophy. In depicting his own way out he shows how both his people and his nation must go and grow. He appears

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almost unconscious of his own change of views, as he tells incident after incident revelatory of that change. Son of a slave, born in Virginia, servant on the plantation, he grasps the opportunities that at seventeen make him choir leader, Sunday School superintendent, and, but for the good sense of his mother, candidate for the legislature. Thru good fortune he goes to Hampton and begins his systematic education, but before he finishes there he turns aside to remarkable success as teacher and community leader. At Hampton new standards fix new values for him. Tending by early training to racial and local limitations, we see him grow into the cosmopolitan. Once antagonistic to the singing of the plantation melodies, he learns to appreciate their place among the higher things of culture. Fearful of the capacity of his own people, the speech of Dr. Washington converts him to permanent confidence.

When he becomes Commandant at Hampton and has to deal intimately with both Negro and Indian youth, he finds many diversities of temperament, but surprizing uniformities in condition and prospects, and discovers that both races "still need, as do some other races, such moral and mental discipline as will fix in them habits of obedience, order, accuracy, appreciation, and the many other private virtues the habitual practise of which makes the man." It becomes increasingly clear to him that "the ground of racial adjustment lies * * * in the discovery of likenesses and of virtues (common to both) which make possible their mutual understanding and cooperation." His travels abroad make him realize "for the first time that the Negro in America, even the most backward Negro farmer, notwithstanding the unfairness and injustice which confront him, lives amidst surroundings much more encouraging and hopeful than is true of certain classes of the white race in Europe." * * * * "I would rather be a Negro in the United States than anybody else in any other country in the world."

But it is the personal relationships with great souls which came to him largely thru public interest in Hampton and

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Tuskegee that revealed to him the truth which he has more and more exemplified in his life. Hampton always preached the necessity for the reconciliation of both races and both sections of our country, and when Dr. Moton left Hampton to succeed Dr. Washington at Tuskegee in his inaugural address he used these historic and pregnant words, "Here met the three elements—the North, the South, and the Negro—the three elements that must be taken into account in any genuinely satisfactory adjustment of race relations." Fundamentally these words are the life and the message of Dr. Moton—in this book and out—to the men of his day and generation. His is the message of conciliation, of cooperation, of belief in others, of optimism of the wisest sort. In a day of increasing bitternesses and widening antagonisms, Dr. Moton stands for the principles of charity and peace. The writer of this review is so deeply convinced of the imperative truth of this point of view that he has suggested that all persons who agree with it shall register themselves as members of the Triangle of Peace, which, representative of North and South and Negro, shall furnish the nucleus for the spiritual solution of the great race problem of the United States. Dr. Moton in this book (as in his life) has made incarnate the principle of peace. The book is one of the significant works of the day. It exemplifies for to-day the spirit of the beatitudes of the Sermon on the Mount. FAYETTE AVERY MCKENZIE

FISK UNIVERSITY,
NASHVILLE, TENN.

Current social and industrial forces—Edited by LIONEL D. EDIE. Boni & Liveright. 1920. 393 p.

A few years ago President Bryan of Colgate University recommended the introduction of courses on Current Historical Forces, with the purpose of acquainting the students with some phases of history in the making. It was primarily to serve as a textbook for one of these courses that Professor Edie collected the 125 selections which make up the present volume. The topics illustrated cover a great range of economic and social interest, such as prob-

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lems of production, the price system, the direction of industry, national credit and taxation, the power and policy of organized labor, proposed plans of social and political reform, the criticism of the existing industrial order, and the possibilities and promise of a new social science. Professor Edie has laid under contribution not only formal reports of government commissions and proceedings of various conventions, but has drawn on more than a score of well-known authors like Wells, Hobson, Veblen, Weyl, Laski, Croly, Lippman, Wallas, Dewey, Robinson, and Bertrand Russell. The opinions of men in the thick of affairs (Judge Gary, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Otto H. Kahn) find a place beside the theories of the "cloistered" students. An extract from President Wilson stands side by side with an editorial by Alvin Johnson. The aim of the book, in the author's own words, is "to present the case of those who believe in betterment." Or, as Professor Robinson phrases it in his brief introductory recommendation, the "anthology forms a really imposing stock-taking of current speculation upon pressing economic quandaries."

Professor Edie has shown skill in the selection and arrangement of his material; he has known how to get the meat out of a chapter or a report; he has brought cumulative evidence to bear at critical points on important questions. But for all these virtues of a source-book, his "anthology" can hardly hope to fulfil the expectations which he has for it in the preface, namely: "That business and professional men will find this group of selections serviceable as a kind of entering wedge and center of exploration in this field of thought." The very form of the book is dissuasive of continuous reading. One has to pass rapidly from style to style, from a short extract to a long one, from a formal report to an exquisite bit of literary satire. The strain of constant adjustment and mental adaptation is distracting. The intellectual current is interrupted by a constant make and break. This is no prejudice, of course, to the book as a work of reference. The reader who knows what he wants to "look up" will find most interesting and

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stimulating extracts, such as the revelations of the enormous war profits (p. 77), or the statistics of recent strikes (p. 214). One can not help feeling that the book would have been improved, however, by brief introductions to the various sections and especially by giving the dates of all the books, articles, and reports quoted. It makes a good deal of difference, for example, in our judgment of the value of an extract whether it was written before or after the war.

The whole tone of the book shows the author's generous sympathy with the illuminating mission, of a free discussion of all the "forces, ideas, and ideals which underlie current restlessness." He regards the "radical" not as a wanton disturber of the peace of society, but rather as the physician who realizes the diseases in the body politic and seeks the remedy therefor." He would have sympathy with that "philosophe" of the days of the Enlightment on France who said: "The conservatives fear us as the robber fears a street-lamp." The text of Professor Edie's book might well be a sentence of Professor Dewey's in an article in the New Republic of April 6, 1918, on A New Social Science: "The exposed myth is that the existing social order is a product of natural laws which are expounded in a rational, a scientific way in the traditional sciences of society."

D. S. Muzzey.

Columbia University,
New York City

The psychology of subnormal children—By Leta S. Hollingworth. The Macmillan Company. 1920. 288 p.

The book of Doctor L. S. Hollingworth on *The psychology of subnormal children* is exactly the book that workers in this field have needed.

Classes that treat of the problem of the feeble-minded will find it useful for a textbook. Its primary value will be for those engaged in the practical side of the treatment and control of subnormal children. The author states that her plan is to help those teachers of "special classes for children who are subnormal in intelligence. * * * It is addressed primarily to them (the teachers) rather than to

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clinicians, for whom the majority of books on this subject have been hitherto especially prepared. The discussion is, therefore, confined largely to the educational psychology of mentally deficient children, with relatively slight emphasis on methods of identification and diagnosis."

With this in mind, the book takes up the subjects that are necessary for a firm grasp of the problem: individual differences; the present meaning of mental deficiency; the variations within the group; the mental processes, especially those of learning; and the social bearing of the whole problem of the feeble-minded and their control.

The references given thruout the book will be of great service to anyone wishing to go more extensively into the separate topics. For all except the specialist, the text alone will furnish a working knowledge of all the points of value.

One chapter that the teacher should study carefully is on irregularity of ability. While it does not analyze as extensively and minutely as is desirable, it offers a resumé of the work done by psychologists in this field. There is room for more constructive work than is here presented. It is specific enough to preserve the reader from the fault of believing the "mental age" to be a diagnosis equally applicable under all conditions.

Stress is also laid on the irregularities of the learning process. This is valuable in cases where the teacher has had training in the educational psychology of normal children. The author assumes such knowledge on the part of the reader. In such space as is given to this chapter, only little more than comparisons can be given.

Since this book is for the use of teachers, it is unfortunate that more space is not given to a discussion of the schoolroom situation. This is touched too generally for a consideration of many of the specific problems that confront the teacher. Another volume is needed to meet this lack, a volume that will give more illustrative material from the standpoint of an educator.

KATHARINE B. GRAVES

STATE SCHOOL FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED,
FARIBAULT, MINNESOTA

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IX

NOTES AND NEWS

Americanization in Pennsylvania Probably no other state in the Union has been settled by peoples of wider diversities in race, religion, and political outlook than Pennsylvania. William Penn early found an asylum there for himself and co-religionists, and speedily opened the door to all others in the world seeking a peaceful outlet for their own peculiar tenets. Later the development of industries, commerce, and transportation, and the growth of large cities have brought in all racial and national elements not previously known to the state. As a concomitant of her history, Pennsylvania has always been hospitable toward every people and every point of view. This toleration has, however, led at times to a sad absence of civic standards and homogeneity. The state is in desperate need of that process of assimilation which guarantees the full functioning of American citizenship. About 4.8 per cent of its people are illiterate, and a large fraction of these are native-born, or naturalized citizens. Assuredly Americanization can never become a reality, even among Americans, when illiteracy exists. In addition to illiteracy, in the foreign phase of the problem there is the more serious factor of inability even to speak or understand English. There are over two hundred thousand persons in Pennsylvania who can not speak English, and considerably more than one half of these can not read or write any other language. Happily, as in most of the states where progress is being made in education, the Department of Public Instruction now possesses facilities for attacking this serious problem thru an Americanization Bureau.

The Americanization Bureau came into existence in Pennsylvania as a war activity under the State Council of De-

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fense, and has recently been transferred to the state education office. It is in executive charge of a director, with a staff of assistants especially trained for the field of Americanization. Work in most communities has also been begun by a variety of other agencies—social welfare organizations, patriotic societies, women's clubs, racial groups, and religious organizations, and the national government is arranging for work on a large scale. A survey of existing Americanization activities is, therefore, being made, in order to avoid duplication of efforts by the federal, state, and local agencies, and to bring about a closer articulation of interests. It is planned to divide the work of the state into zones, and to place each zone in charge of a supervisor, whose business will be to put the state plan into operation thru local Community Americanization Councils.

The most crying need in all communities engaged in Americanization is found to be that of trained teachers and workers, and the Bureau intends to furnish the necessary course of training, without cost, to all willing to undertake it. A state-wide campaign to have English spoken everywhere will also be started at once. While English is merely a tool to the accomplishment of Americanization, without it the process is impossible. A similar effort will be made in the interest of instruction in citizenship. This is the final objective and the most difficult phase of the program, but to grant suffrage without training is to jeopardize democracy in America.

Thus Pennsylvania, thru its new Bureau, is planning to utilize every available agency to overcome the disadvantages of its peculiar ethnical and social history. It is endeavoring to its utmost to operate a continuous campaign thruout the state for loyal and constructive Americanization, and to make its contribution toward the national ideal of American patriotism. But while these steps are probably more needed in Pennsylvania than in most states, they are typical of a widespread movement thruout the Union toward the improvement of our citizenship.

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Progress of the Smith-Towner bill.

In an issue devoted so largely to Americanization, we are happy to note the great advance that was made in January by the advocates of the Smith-Towner bill. The House Committee reported the bill favorably by a large vote. The vulnerable points of the bill, which were in the past frequently attacked, have now been guarded by specific amendments. This revision was made in order to harmonize with the work of the Joint Committee of the House and Senate on the Reorganization of the Administrative Branch of the Government, and it removed the most vital objections presented by the opponents of the bill. The amendments make explicit the control of the individual states over courses, means, and methods of instruction. To Section 14 of the bill has been added the provision:

"That courses of study, plans, and methods for carrying out the purpose and provisions of this Act within a State shall be determined by the State and local educational authorities of said State, and this Act shall not be construed to require uniformity of courses of study, plans, and methods in the several States, in order to secure the benefits herein provided."

The other change in the bill turns over to Congress, instead of the President, the determination of the transfer to the new Department of the agencies now engaged in education. Section 3 has been modified so as to read:

"That there is hereby transferred to the Department of Education the Bureau of Education and such offices, bureaus, divisions, boards, and branches of government, connected with or attached to any of the executive departments or organized independently of any department, as Congress may determine should be controlled by, or the functions of which should be exercised by the Department of Education, and all such offices, bureaus, divisions, boards, or branches of government so transferred by Act of Congress, shall thereafter be administered by the Department of Education, as hereinafter provided."

As our current issue goes to press it is still too early to predict whether this much needed legislation will be had at the short session. As stated in Notes and News for December, both Congress and the President are largely pledged to the ultimate passage of such a law, and the present drift of sentiment is all in that direction. The

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organization of a national committee of citizens has been brought about by Dr. George D. Strayer as chairman of the National Education Association's legislative committee. This layman's committee consists of thirty-six members, all of whom have accepted the responsibility only after a careful study of the bill and of the arguments *pro* and *contra*, and have undertaken to promote its passage to the utmost of their ability. The committee embraces in its membership such prominent business men as Edwark Bok, Cleveland H. Dodge, A. Lincoln Filene, and Frank Vanderlip; several publicists, such as George Wharton Pepper, William C. Redfield, and Governor Milliken; literary men, like Henry Bruere; leading labor men, like Matthew Woll, president of the International Photo-Engravers' Union; and a number of influential women, including Mrs. Park, chairman of the National League of Woman Voters, and Mrs. Winter and Mrs. Jennings, the president and vice-president, respectively, of the General Federation of Women's Clubs. The *New York Evening Post* has twice of late advocated the bill in a vigorous editorial, and evidently means to make its support part of the policy of the paper. Its second editorial closes with the declaration:

"The Senate debate shows clearly that even those who are opposed to federal aid for education realize that a long series of Congressional Acts has definitely established the principle of federal aid, and that whatever other objections may be urged to the Smith-Towner Bill, the right of the federal government to make a money grant to the states for education can not be denied."

It is well, of course, not to be unduly optimistic. The bill has powerful enemies and Congressional action is proverbially slow. Nothing is more discouraging than to have consummation postponed when over-sanguine, as there is a natural reaction from confidence to despondency. It would be well if the bill could be passed at this session, and present indications are most hopeful, but if it should not, there is no reason even then to despair of its eventual success. By the time this number of the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW appears, the present fate of the bill will be known.

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Montana maintains her record

According to the *Index number for state school systems*, a report of the survey of certain factors in public educational efficiency prepared last year by Dr. Leonard P. Ayres, Montana has eclipsed all other commonwealths. This leading reputation for allegiance to the cause of public education was fully sustained by the citizens at the polls recently. At the November election the people of Montana voted, by substantial majorities, in favor of two significant financial measures for the benefit of the University of Montana. The first of these provides for an annual state tax of one and one-half mills, for a period of ten years, for the maintenance of the University. The companion measure authorizes the issuance of state bonds for three million, seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars, for the construction and equipment of necessary buildings. In other words, Montana has registered her will to expend practically twenty million dollars for her University.

The term "University" is, however, likely to prove misleading to those who think of it as indicating a single institution, or even to one who is acquainted with the University of France, the University of Georgia, or the University of the State of New York, as the title of a system of schools rather than an institution. In its organization the University of Montana is unique. Under the provisions of a law enacted in 1913 the several state higher educational institutions—the State University at Missoula, the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts at Bozeman, the State Normal School at Dillon, and the State School of Mines at Butte, were constituted the "University of Montana." This law empowered the State Board of Education to appoint a Chancellor of the University, who, under the general control of this Board, was to be the chief executive officer for the entire new University organization. The first Chancellor, Dr. Edward C. Elliott, who was largely responsible for this signal victory in public higher education, assumed his duties on February 1, 1916. This form of administrative consolidation came as a result of many

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years of competition and controversy among the institutions. It represented the determination of the state to secure harmony, unity, economy, and educational effectiveness for the state's higher educational system. The success of this experiment in the field of higher educational organization and administration will certainly be watched with interest by other states having a similar problem.

In common with all such institutions in new states, the University has found its chief problem to be that of adequate funds for support and material development. Aside from the small income from land grants, the institutions were entirely dependent upon appropriations made at each biennial session of the legislature from the general funds of the state. Owing to the constitutional limit of state taxation, the appropriations were wholly insufficient to meet the needs of the rapidly growing institutions. To meet the crisis, Chancellor Elliott proposed last year that there be initiated the two laws which have just been passed. The result of the election was the climax of ten months of active state-wide campaigning by the friends of education. The entire state was organized and the assistance of practically every civic, commercial, and industrial organization enlisted. Notwithstanding the diversions of a heated political campaign, the depression following the war and three years of disastrous drouth, the campaign of education for education was victorious. The people of Montana have translated their civic ideals into terms that can not be misunderstood, and Montana has once more demonstrated her claim to a primary position in public education among the sisterhood of states.

Progress of the international associations.

Education is not only enlarging and Americanizing its agencies, but is becoming greatly interested in the development of internationalism. This is most evident in the activities of the three great associations organized especially for the promotion of international relations in education. The development of these associations—the American University

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Union in Europe, the American Council on Education, and the Institute of International Education—and the division of functions among them, were described in Notes and News last May, and four months ago we discussed in detail the latest work and publications of the Council. The Union and the Institute have been equally active.

Both of these associations have cooperated with the Council in preparing a list of accredited American institutions for the information of foreign university officials, and later have collaborated in the formulation of a basis for the admission of holders of French degrees to American colleges and universities. In cooperation with the French High Commission, the Institute has also published a booklet on Opportunities for Higher Education in France, which contains a comprehensive statement of admission requirements, degrees, courses, fees, faculties, and all other data necessary for the American student. The Institute has likewise published a similar pamphlet on Opportunities for Graduate Study in the British Isles, which was prepared by Dr. George E. MacLean, Director of the British Division of the Union. And now Professor Kenneth McKenzie of the University of Illinois is preparing a statement of the same sort with reference to the Italian universities, with which he came in close contact when he was Director of the Union office in Rome during the War.

The international associations, especially the Institute, have also endeavored to keep Americans informed concerning fellowships for study at European universities. The problem of sending our students abroad upon fellowships is a difficult one. Foreign universities have but few such foundations. If students from American institutions are to study abroad with this aid, the fellowships must be financed in the United States. The most generous provision for them has been made thru the foundation of the American Field Service Fellowships, mentioned as open for applicants in Notes and News of our January issue. At present they provide for twenty-eight men and two women students from the United States, who are now studying at

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French universities. These fellowships are named after men of the American Field Service, who died in France, and it is intended, if sufficient funds can be obtained, to name a fellowship in memory of each of these heroes. The preference, in awarding these fellowships, has been given to men, since a large number of fellowships and scholarships are already offered to women by the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, and since the French Government also awards about thirty scholarships available only for women. But it is hoped that, by the addition of funds for that special purpose, the number of Field Service fellowships open to women may soon be increased.

But the care of the international societies has not ceased when the American student is once located abroad. Here the specific work of the Union is begun. In various European countries this organization has maintained offices in convenient and accessible rooms, which are constantly visited by American students in search of information or help. When the Secretary of the Union visited these headquarters last summer he found that during the year 237 students from various American institutions had registered at the Paris office, and 385 at the London office, and that many thousand letters of inquiry had been answered. Thru the London office also the Union has assisted in the placing of 26 American students, who are now in attendance at British universities. In view of the pressure upon the English colleges, which have had hard work to find room for English students, this number is encouraging, and will, no doubt, be enlarged considerably in the future.

The flow of students in the other direction has been less brisk. But the Union has acted as intermediary for the Imperial College of Science and Technology of London in placing four graduate scholars, who have come from England and are now working at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the University of Wisconsin, and Columbia University.

Nor are the services of the new international organizations limited to students. The interchange of educational thought between Europe and America has been promoted thru

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facilities furnished prominent professors of each continent to visit the other. A definite plan has been adopted by the Institute, to provide funds for meeting the traveling expenses of selected professors on sabbatical leave to and from their universities in the United States and different parts of the world. Lecturing in some foreign institution or institutions, whose authorities have declared the visiting professor and his subjects acceptable, form part of the arrangement, and the professor is further required to report such recommendations as his experience justifies him in believing will "develop international good will by means of educational agencies." Likewise the Union has introduced a number of American professors engaged in research to the British Museum and Public Record Office, and has been able to make arrangements for many others to lecture in English universities. Among these latter are Professor Brooke Tucker of Yale, who is lecturing at Bedford College, London, and at Oxford University on English Literature; Professor Morris of the University of California, who lectures at Kings College and Westfield College, both of the University of London; and Miss Morehouse of the University of Minnesota, who is lecturing in the Department of Education at the University of Manchester. On the other hand, the Institute endeavors to keep administrative authorities of American colleges and universities informed of the presence of visiting scholars, educators, and commissioners, in order that they may be secured for teaching engagements, lectures, and commencement addresses.

Other types of international cooperation in education have also been arranged. During his visit to Europe last summer the Director of the Institute met for this purpose with representative bodies in Great Britain, France, Italy, Belgium, Switzerland, and Jugo-Slavia. And the Institute has already received visiting delegations from Spain, Roumania, Czecho-Slovakia, Chile, Australia, China, and Japan. At the international labor conference the French representative met representatives of the Law School of Columbia University, to consider modifications in the require-

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ments of the Law Faculty at the University of Paris that would enable American students to pursue their studies there more easily. At another conference representative Italian residents and professors of Italian in our principal universities undertook the organization of a society similar to the Alliance Française, to propagate Italian culture in the educational institutions of the United States. Thru still another conference, which was representative of Mexican education, missionaries and American educators considered how to improve the organization of American institutions in Mexico.

Thus in a variety of ways the three organizations are striving to their utmost to cultivate every possible form of international relations, and to place all their facilities at the disposal of every responsible educational organization having international connections and interests. No feature of present day progress in education is more effective and promising.

Student ambassadors

But there is another factor in international *rapprochement* that might easily be made of even greater influence than that exerted by our three effective societies. It is found in the large body of foreign students now attending American institutions of higher learning. These young men and women naturally constitute the brainiest, most courageous, and progressive element in the countries from which they come and to which they expect to return after they have obtained their higher training in the United States. Our standing with foreign nations will largely be determined by these students. It is scarcely possible to exaggerate the part that they will play in giving a proper understanding of America to the countries of Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia, and South America, for our colleges have drawn hundreds of these brilliant young people from all the other continents. The important contribution they will make to international good will entitles them to be considered as "educational ambassadors."

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As a group these foreign students rather excel our own in loyalty to the institution they are attending. Certainly their appreciation of the facilities and instruction afforded them and their devotion to the professors and jealousy of their good names might well set an example to American collegians. And yet we have been shockingly economical in our hospitality to them. There are Cosmopolitan Clubs in all large colleges and universities, but their meetings are attended, as a rule, only by the foreigners themselves. Even where some philanthropic agency maintains an "international house," American students seldom go inside it, and the number of homes in any college community open to these ambitious representatives of other countries can usually be counted on the fingers of one hand. They even find observation of our schools and other educational work difficult or actually closed to them.

Nor is their financial situation a happy one. The expense of tuition seems to them to be very large in the United States. This is especially true of those who have come to this country to fit themselves more adequately for educational positions. America is apparently the only country in the civilized world that charges a tuition fee to those intending to become teachers, for all other nations regard the work of an educator in the light of public service and furnish the training in this line as free as that at West Point or Annapolis. Of late the foreign student has met with an additional and peculiar hardship in disadvantageous rates of money exchange. He finds his national currency reduced to one-fifth or even one-tenth of the amount that he supposed it was worth and that it would have been before the War. Moreover, it is very difficult for him to obtain pecuniary aid, however great his need. Scholarships are exceedingly few in number, and it is the rare institution that is sufficiently broad-minded to bestow them upon foreigners. "Our own students must be cared for first" is the usual cry, and there are no scholarships for which the *uitlander* can apply without competition. Consequently, young foreigners with the finest minds are, in many instances,

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curtailing their precious days in American colleges by waiting on table, carrying newspapers, collecting laundry, or any of the other well-known devices of impecunious students.

Surely something ought to be done, if we are not to allow this great opportunity for furthering international understanding, peace, and prosperity in large measure to slip by. One could not have been present at the meeting of the Teachers College authorities last month and listened to the presentation made by representative foreign students, as the Editor did, without being imprest with the strength and urgency of the cause. Each of the young men brought before the Board of Trustees exprest his pleasure in being permitted to study in the great institution and his gratitude for the privileges granted him. No complaint or querulous statement of any sort was made, but a plain unvarnished account of conditions and a series of constructive suggestions were offered. The insight into the situation and the remarkable English used in expressing it would in all cases have done great credit to our native students at any college in the land.

Each of the students that spoke seemed to feel especially the need of developing an understanding of foreign conditions and educational systems by the American colleges and of American ideals and education by the foreign students. It was suggested that an International Club building should be opened, with one-quarter of the rooms to be occupied by American students, and that, if possible, American homes should be opened to the foreign students, in order that they might become familiar with the customs, manners, and living conditions of this country. But the necessity of a Bureau of Educational Research at Teachers College, to investigate foreign education, was especially stressed. If this were once established in American colleges, the staff of the Bureau would be in a position to offer sound advice to all foreign students when they begin their work in the United States and prevent their floundering for a year or more, as at present, in selecting their courses and adjusting themselves to American conditions. The Bureau might, of

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course, be used also for instructing American students in foreign school systems. A number of other feasible propositions were offered, such as an American college in each foreign land, taught by a faculty from both countries; traveling lectureships, to be filled each year by American professors of the greatest repute; and the preparation of bibliographies and syllabi upon the various phases of American and foreign education, which might be distributed free or at comparatively small cost. To relieve the financial extremities of foreign students, it was suggested that the number of scholarships and the sums devoted to loan funds should be multiplied, and that an effort should be made to apprise higher officials of the home country of the serious needs of their students in America and to induce them to increase the number of scholars and raise the amount of the subsidy granted.

Of course, all these projects will entail large expenditures of time and money, but, unless we are blind to all save material things, we shall see that they are well worth carrying out. An appeal should at once be made to philanthropists of means and to all organizations interested in international good will, such as the three great educational societies established for this purpose, the Carnegie Peace Commission, the General Education Board, and the Commonwealth Fund. Even commercial bodies could logically be invited to assist, for in this case trade will certainly follow the flag. We should do all in our power to enable the world to understand American ideals aright and to promote the efficiency of these student ambassadors.

Meeting of the Department of Superintendence

When in doubt, play Atlantic City, seems to be good educational Hoyle with the National Association. Just as three years ago the preemption of Atlanta for the encampment of soldiers and the needs of a nation at war forced the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence to transport its mid-winter meeting to the younger namesake of the mythical huntress, so this year, the unwillingness of

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the hostelries at the Capital of the Country to make room for a horde of unmoneyed pedagogues during the Inauguration period drove the gathering once more to the attractive summer resort of the Jersey Coast. Many wish that the Department might every year find a reasonable excuse for taking refuge in this seaside Eden. It may be equalled by some resorts in California, Florida, or on the Riviera as a place of winter residence, but it has few or no superiors. Its southern exposure and proximity to the Gulf Stream and the protection of the Jersey pine belt generally insure a warm and equitable climate thruout the year. With generous hotel accommodations, as well as salubrious surroundings, it has become the ideal place for conventions held in winter.

The date for the meetings of the Department of Superintendence this year was February 24th to March 3rd, but the present issue of the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW will be well on its way thru press before the opening of the convention, and the description of the program below is necessarily somewhat contingent upon subsequent events. The president of the body, Commissioner Kendall of New Jersey, has been seriously ill, and may not be able to take the chair. The general program does not really begin until Monday, February 28th, but the earlier days of the convention are to be fully occupied with sessions of the National Society of Vocational Education, the National Council of Education, the National Society of the College Teachers of Education, and other departmental and allied associations. And on the morning of Sunday, the 27th, a large congregation will gather at the Million Dollar Pier to hear a real sermon from one of America's most noted preachers and literary men, Professor Henry Van Dyke of Princeton. His subject is *Art and morals*.

The general program will begin on Monday morning with a consideration of *The great problem in American education—the rural school*, and among the speakers will be State Superintendent Wood of California, Governor Harding of Iowa, Superintendent Ralph Decker of Sussex County

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New Jersey, and Professor Bagley of Teachers College. The discussion will be led by Ernest Burnham of the State Normal School at Kalamazoo, Michigan, and by Elizabeth Kelly of the North Carolina State Department of Education. All of these educators have won great repute for their efforts to contribute to a solution of this perplexing question. The program will be continued in the afternoon with a discussion of the theme—*Some ideals and accomplishments of the school system I represent*, by the superintendents of Rochester, Newark, Seattle, and Cincinnati. These four large cities have been famed for their successful experimentation in new lines of work. In the evening an address upon *Theodore Roosevelt, lover of books*, is to be given by the sister of this great American, Mrs. Robinson, and President Livingston Lord of the State Normal School at Charleston, Illinois, who has probably selected for his faculty and developed more able young men than any other executive in the country, will speak upon *Ideals of the teacher*. Announcements concerning the summer meeting of the National Education Association will also be made by Superintendent Fred M. Hunter, President for 1921, and by Superintendent Studebaker of Des Moines, where the summer gathering is to be held.

Tuesday morning will also be occupied by the city school administrators, on this occasion with the topic, *Best use of the superintendent's time*. Among the speakers selected are Superintendents Van Sickle, Meek, H. B. Wilson, and Charl O. Williams, and the discussion will be led by Superintendents Jackson of Minneapolis and Engleman of Decatur. The remainder of the morning will be devoted to a business meeting, at which the report of the Committee on the Method of Electing Officers of the Department will be read by its chairman, Superintendent Jones of Cleveland. In the afternoon a galaxy of educational thinkers and leaders, including Presidents Aley, Burton, and Coffman of Maine, Michigan, and Minnesota, respectively, Deans Withers and Spaulding of New York and Yale Universities (both until recently superintendents of schools in large cities),

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and Superintendent Snyder, of Jersey City, will deliver themselves of suggestive prophecies concerning *The probable future of education in the United States.*

On Wednesday, the morning will be given to a discussion of the general subject of *Better teaching, the great need of our schools*, with President Jessup of Iowa, Director Judd of Chicago, Superintendent Susan M. Dorsey of Los Angeles, and Superintendent Zenos E. Scott of Louisville, as the speakers. The afternoon will be devoted to sectional meetings, the groups being determined by the size of the cities. In the evening a discussion of *National aid for education* will be given by Congressman Towner of Iowa, joint author of the Smith-Towner Bill, and Commissioner Claxton of the United States Bureau will deliver an address upon a germane topic.

The last session will occur on Thursday morning and will be very brief, but will present the addresses of two remarkable educational leaders. Chancellor Elliott, who is at the head of all the institutions of higher education in Montana, is to speak on *Local influence of the Russell Sage Foundation ranking of Montana's educational system.* The chief interest in his theme is derived from the fact that Montana was, as we have seen in a preceding editorial, awarded first place in the Union as the result of the Russell Sage investigation of educational achievements in the various states. And this interest will be further heightened by the preceding message from Superintendent Thomas E. Finegan of Pennsylvania, whose state, under his able and fearless leadership, is now struggling to lift its position from twentieth to first in the *Index.* Under the circumstances, Dr. Finegan is most appropriately to speak on the topic: *How may the public understand what service the school is rendering the community?* Before these discussions, an address will be given on the *Comparative failure in the enforcement of compulsory education*, by H. H. Bonner. He has stated the findings upon which he is to speak, as follows:

"The American people are practical and efficient, but millions of dollars are wasted annually in educational efficiency, because children do not go to

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school as they might and ought, owing to the failure to adequately enforce compulsory education laws. This failure is too common in this country."

These addresses should afford a fitting close to one of the most inspiring and forward-looking meetings that have ever been held by the Department of Superintendence.

Program of the college teachers of education

Probably the allied association meeting annually with the Department of Superintendence which is most productive of progress is that maintained by the trainers of leaders in teaching and educational experimentation. This is a national body known as the Society of the College Teachers of Education. At Atlantic City the sessions will be given almost entirely to reports of studies and investigations conducted by members of the Society. A considerable portion of this work has been in the hands of special committees.

On the afternoon of Friday, February 25th, the Committee on the Preparation of Curricula in Education, which has been working for several years under the able chairmanship of Professor Arthur J. Jones of the University of Pennsylvania, will present the results of their research into several phases of the subject. The Committee on Standardizing Colleges, Schools, and Departments of Education is also to report thru its chairman, Professor Butterworth of Cornell University. The remainder of the session will be given to ten-minute papers upon *Measuring teaching ability*. In the evening most of the time is to be occupied by the oldest and hitherto most prolific of the committees, presided over by Professor Mead of Ohio Wesleyan University, and known as the Committee on Practice Teaching. In addition, Dean W. F. Russell of the University of Iowa, will discuss the *Scientific distribution of school funds*, and the *Relation of the American School Citizenship League to the training of high school teachers* will be presented by President E. O. Sisson of Montana. The final session on Saturday morning is to be devoted to a dozen important studies in the use of intelligence tests and in curriculum-making. The meeting promises to be even more profitable than usual.

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Discussions of the vocational educators

For the first time in its history the National Society for Vocational Education is also meeting with the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. During the past few years it has convened just before the gathering of the superintendents, but always at some other center. This year the meeting is being held at Atlantic City during the week-end preceding the general program of the Department of Superintendence in the same place. In conjunction with this association, three other organizations with similar aims—the Federal Board for Vocational Education, the Conference on Vocational Education of the United States Bureau, and the National Vocational Guidance Association—will hold their annual meetings. It seems likely also that a section on Vocational Education will be provided this year in the Department of Superintendence and furnish a program, altho the list of papers has not yet been published. Owing to the efforts of Professor William C. Ash of the University of Pennsylvania, this contact and mutual understanding with educators in the general field has been approved by the National Society, and a committee, with Dr. David Snedden as chairman, has been appointed to formulate a program for Atlantic City.

The sessions of the Federal Board will be held at Hotel Breakers on Tuesday and Wednesday, February 22nd and 23rd. It will be regional in character, as it will be limited to the North Atlantic group of those engaged in supervision and teacher training under the provisions of the Vocational Education Act. No general national conference will be called this year. On Wednesday evening there will be an informal discussion under the auspices of the United States Bureau of Education at a dinner in Hotel Watkins. The general topic will be: *The contribution of correspondence instruction to industrial education.*

The National Society itself will meet on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday morning at the Million Dollar Pier, and a general reception will be given on Thursday after

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the dinners held by the various sections. At the first two sessions of the Society the following topics will be considered: *Problems arising in part time or continuation schools*, *Industrial rehabilitation*, and *Achievements under the Smith-Hughes act*. The annual business meeting will be held on Saturday morning, and important amendments to the Constitution will be acted upon. The afternoon sessions on Thursday and Friday will consist of sectional conferences on Agricultural, Commercial, Industrial, and Homemaking Education.

On Friday and Saturday also will come the meetings of the National Vocational Guidance Association. The program will include a discussion of the topic, *Accomplishments in tests relating to vocational guidance*, and of the report of the Committee on the Principles of Vocational Guidance. Reports from the field will also be presented, and a luncheon and business meeting will be held.

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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

APRIL, 1921

I

THE DILEMMA OF THE COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCE

In the whole field of higher education there is no question more perplexing or more important than the determination of the place and functions of the college of liberal arts under the changed conditions of higher and secondary education that have come about in the last twenty years. The question presents itself with peculiar force to the large university. What should be the ideals of the college of liberal arts? What should constitute its curriculum? What relationship should it bear to the other offerings of the university? The answers which the universities make to these questions in the next few years will probably determine the status of the college of liberal arts in the general scheme of American education. I do not depreciate the contribution which the independent colleges, the typical four-year colleges of arts and sciences, can make. But it must be remembered that such institutions are in the position of interested parties in a lawsuit. By the very nature of their organization and traditions they are prevented from even considering very radical proposals. The solution of the problem must, therefore, come primarily from other sources.

There are several reasons for the present chaotic state of the college of liberal arts. The more important of these may be noted by way of introduction. The objectives of the college of liberal arts are exceedingly vague. Few collegiate institutions, except those that are strictly

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denominational, can say what they are training students for or can offer any really valid defense for many of their requirements. A depressing revelation of the prevalence of this condition appears in a bulletin recently prepared by Dr. John of the Bureau of Education on "Requirements for the Bachelor's Degree." The entrance and graduation requirements of more than a hundred colleges of arts and sciences are there tabulated and compared. They are almost as varied and as unrelated to one another as the patterns in a kaleidoscope. They vary from institution to institution, from state to state and still more from region to region. All are dogmatically set forth, and—if we may believe fervent catalog protestations—rigidly adhered to. Should there be as wide a variation in the objectives of liberal education as this condition appears to imply? Or may we properly attribute the diversity to a general failure of our educational philosophy? The only fixed points in the whole unstable world of higher liberal education are certain uncompromising denominational institutions. They, at least, are sure of what they do and why. On this account I judge them to be worthy of greater honor than has been paid them of late.

There are thousands of papers and not a few books giving individual interpretations of the college of liberal arts, telling what it should stand for, what its curriculum should be, and setting forth what effect a college course should have on the students who pursue it. But there is no more agreement among the writers than among the requirements of the institutions. Moreover, it is a significant fact that nobody pays any attention to literature of this sort when it comes to defining the college of liberal arts. For various purposes, every type of institution has to be defined. The college of liberal arts because of its very vagueness of outline has especially needed definition. It has been so easy to counterfeit and the counterfeit coin has done so much damage. Consequently we have had definitions by the score. But do they help to make plain the real purpose of collegiate institutions? No

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at all. Colleges of liberal arts are defined by practically all standardizing agencies in purely mechanical terms. The categories are numerical, quantitative, relating wholly to externals. They specify, for example, certain sums of money for endowment, a minimum number of professors, so many units for admission, so many semester hours for graduation. And it is this fashion of describing collegiate institutions in terms of time and material commodities that is to a large degree responsible for fastening upon the whole body of American education the greatest plague that has afflicted it, namely, the system of paper credits as a substitute for tests of personal capacity.

Now I believe that the prevailing lack of interest among students in the intellectual work of the college is largely due to the uncertainty regarding the fundamental purposes of college studies. The college, as the student sees it, aims at nothing that can be described except in the haziest and most uninspiring generalities. It has no direct contacts with definite and tangible human undertakings. Complete success in mastering its intellectual offerings admittedly has very little effect upon one's later career, unless this career should happen to be teaching.

Contrast this situation with the situation of the vocational colleges. There is nothing vague about the objectives of colleges of engineering, law, education or commerce. The officers of such institutions know exactly what they are training students for. The students have the aim clear in view and strive to attain it with a persistency and an enthusiasm that are rarely found among undergraduates in colleges of liberal arts. It may be claimed that this difference is unavoidable. The experience of other countries with higher liberal training, however, indicates that our difficulties are not necessarily inherent in the enterprise itself.

At present the vocational colleges are making tremendous inroads on the territory of the college of liberal arts. They have stolen a large part of its ancient teaching material. They are acquiring each year a larger share of its former

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clientage. Of course, there are pressing economic reasons for the shift of a large portion of the college population to vocational curricula, but quite as potent a motive is the appeal made by the greater vitality of higher vocational courses. Students are not congenitally afraid of work. They are afraid of being bored and they want to know in definite terms what it is they are working for.

One other aspect of the present dilemma of the college of liberal arts may be mentioned in this hasty summary. The former position of the college in our educational system has been affected by the recent growth of graduate and professional schools, the two-year premedical and the one-year prelegal requirements, and the rapid evolution of the public junior college. The relationships of the college to these new institutional phenomena are not at all clear. Chiefly because of this fact the college of liberal arts is obliged to bear the brunt of the complaints made by those who believe that time must be saved in the preparation of practitioners in the various professions.

But in spite of the difficulties under which the college of liberal arts is now laboring, all persons, even those engaged in promoting what might be called competing kinds of higher education, believe that it should be preserved. Nearly all believe that it should be preserved in its full integrity as an institution devoted to non-specialized higher education, that it should not be converted into a vocational training school. Altho we do not know exactly what it is for, we feel sure that it is for something worth while. The very prevalence of this belief constitutes a challenge to the officers of liberal arts colleges, a challenge that must be met before it is too late.

If my diagnosis of the present situation of the college of liberal arts is correct, I do not think that anyone could now safely lay down a definite program for the conduct of the liberal arts division of a large university. Instead it seems to me the fruitful thing to do is to identify a group of problems which each institution is likely to have to solve in its own way. Thru their solution the area of

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uncertainty would be greatly circumscribed and the definition of the major objective would gradually emerge. I would list four of these problems which especially demand attention. They are: the problem of time, the problem of content, the problem of method, and the problem of the selection of human material.

In some way or other time must be saved, particularly for those students who later enter professions. This is an axiom. Everyone admits it, but apparently each educational officer believes that the time-saving process should take place in some other type of institution than his own. College officials have been especially prone to thrust the responsibility on to the elementary and secondary schools. Let us be fair, however. The responsibility can not be entirely shifted. There are two places in our educational system where readjustments to effect economies of time are practicable. These are at the junction points between elementary and secondary education and between secondary and higher education. Elementary education may be cut off at the top and compressed. Secondary education may be lengthened at the top and intensified. These propositions no longer belong to the realm of pure theory. Conscientious and apparently successful experiments in the modification of both elementary and secondary education in the ways just indicated are going forward at various places over the country. Of course, the American college of liberal arts would suffer a complete metamorphosis if it should suddenly be decided that all secondary education should hereafter be carried on in secondary schools. It is the fear of what dreams may come after they have shuffled off this present mortal coil that prevents the colleges themselves from supporting this concentration of secondary education in the institution where it belongs. Indeed the attitude of the typical four-year college to the junior college movement, or to any discussion of a shortening of the college course thru the transfer of part of it to some other type of institution, is only explicable on the assumption that "conscience doth make

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cowards of us all." Nevertheless, the question must be resolutely faced. The eventual concentration in secondary institutions of all strictly secondary studies and the freeing of the college for the pursuit of higher education must be brought about even tho it should involve curtailment of the present college course by one year or two. Obviously little help in the solution of this problem is coming from the independent colleges. The task in fact has fallen by common consent to the larger universities. There is one group of universities whose members are in an especially favored position to make experiments that may reveal a satisfactory solution, namely the urban universities. Many of them draw the majority of their students from the municipalities in which they are located. They may establish closer relationships with local secondary schools than can be established by other kinds of higher institutions. Having so large a proportion of their life comprehended within the boundaries of their respective municipalities, they may be more independent of standardizing agencies than some other institutions can afford to be. If the stronger urban universities would attack this problem single-mindedly, they could go far toward solving it for the whole country.

What should be the content of liberal arts curricula? This is undoubtedly the most difficult problem of all. It is the subject about which there is the greatest diversity of opinion and concerning which the most dogmatic pronouncements have been made. Indeed it involves finally the whole matter of the objectives of college education. I do not know the answer to the question. But I believe there are ways in which a fairly satisfactory answer may be found for each institution. Instead of determining the content of curricula by *a priori* reasoning, the contrary procedure should be followed. An analysis should be made of what college graduates are expected to be and to do. Those common obligations and experiences shared by all, no matter what their occupations, should determine the fixed requirements of liberal arts curricula. Every

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man and woman has certain fundamental duties as a citizen. The responsibilities of citizenship have changed and broadened with the establishment of new international relations. Alterations in the economic balance of the world demand of the future citizen knowledge of certain subjects that was not needed a few years ago. It seems clear that, without very exhaustive analysis, colleges may determine that the core of a modern liberal education must be the social sciences. How much further it will be necessary to go in the direction of definite prescription can only be determined on the basis of such a recanvass of the demands of the modern man's world as has just been mentioned. But this recanvass must be made without preconceptions. Its controlling motives must be the facts of a situation external to the college and not inherited academic superstitions.

I have long contended that the source of half of the ills to which the modern college is heir lies in the prevailing methods of instruction. It was some consolation, therefore, to find this view supported by Professor Hudson, in his much talked of book, *The college and new America.* College subjects, he says, must be vitalized. I agree with him. They can be vitalized in several ways. One way has already been discussed. If the content of college courses were more closely related to the demands of after life, if the objective, in other words, were clear to those who pursued them, the intellectual *tempo* of the institution would be immediately quickened. But the college courses should also be reorganized so as to stimulate independent intellectual activity on the part of students. This has been said many times before and experiments in this direction are going forward sporadically in almost every reputable institution. I plead, however, for the more general recognition of the necessity for such experiments; for their systematic organization by institutional officers; for acceptance of the proposition that college courses must be so organized that to the utmost possible extent the work of students may consist of the solution of problems

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that have bearing on real human situations. If the college is to train not only future citizens but future leaders, these young people should be set to work on the most concrete problems that lie before each community. Almost all large universities and literally every urban university have under their hands great laboratories for the development of this method if they are willing to employ it. But there is an inevitable corollary. The problems of real life do not group themselves as straight economics or unadulterated physics or pure mathematics. Each is a complex that involves more elements than belong in any single subdivision of a college catalog. Consequently, if the problem method is to be employed, the artificial barriers between departments and subjects of study must gradually be broken down. There must be a new fusion of related branches, new syntheses of knowledge. The country has recently had a brief but illuminating object lesson of such a synthesis in the War Issues Course under the S. A. T. C. The principle there illustrated is applicable to other groups of subjects.

Should everybody who now goes to college be allowed that privilege? Personally, I believe not. It is a common complaint of college officers that students shirk their intellectual duties, that a large percentage of them come to college and remain there primarily for the sake of the social or athletic activities that are included under the caption "college life." There are evidently two causes behind the situation: first, that general indefiniteness of objective to which allusion has already been made; and second, the quantitative requirements for admission and graduation. Indefiniteness of objective accounts in large measure for the failure of college work to absorb the major part of the students' energies. To keep from being dulled and deadened, they have organized a highly vital, if artificial, life of their own. Quantitative requirements, which can be met by the piecemeal collection of credits, in the end defeat genuinely high standards as applied to human attainments. Not the least of the tasks which colleges

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must now face is that of selecting those students who are capable of intense intellectual effort, continually sorting them and continually rejecting all who are not qualified both by industry and intelligence to occupy positions of leadership in our democracy. The first step toward the accomplishment of this task, it seems to me, is to question the potency of every purely mechanical device, such as documented high school credits expressed in terms of time, and the accumulation of a specified number of semester hours. In place of these devices, I would substitute as fast as possible searching individual examinations designed to test capacity, achievement, and intellectual power. There should be no safety zones in the college course. Idlers should be pursued with fire and sword and only those who give constant evidence of their earnestness and ability should be retained.

The time is especially propitious for reform. Colleges of every sort are now more independent than they ever were before. They no longer need students. Instead they must fight them off. They no longer need to be competitors of one another. Instead, genuine efforts toward cooperation are now everywhere in progress. The stronger universities, and particularly the great urban universities, are in certain directions more independent than any other institutions. These institutions may appropriately assume the leadership in the movement for the regeneration of the college of liberal arts which must come, if the college is going to be preserved.

Samuel P. Capen

American Council on Education,
Washington, D. C.

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II

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE AS A RELIEF

History seems to have a habit of repeating itself, and those who read history should profit by their knowledge. It was only normal for the returning soldier in 1865–66, and again in 1919–20 to hasten to complete his college studies, which had been interrupted by the war. It should not have been surprising to have the entering classes in September, 1919, number twice as many persons as the largest class to enter their respective universities before the war. Mathematicians also have a habit of studying the past and predicting what the future will bring forth. To any one who had made a mathematical study of the subject, the size of the entering classes at our great universities in the fall of 1919 was not surprizing. If the "curve of new registrations" be plotted for the last ten years, it will be seen that for many of our more prominent educational institutions the curve of new registrations would have predicted just what did happen.

The surprize that was actually given to some of the universities in the fall of 1919, however, was sufficient to cause them to repeat the question so frequently asked: "What are we going to do with this crowd of students?" Old students, anxious parents, and timid youths must have had some misgivings on registration day as to how the university could possibly assimilate such numbers and care for classes, some of which were twice as large as any previous enrolled. The executive officers of state institutions were especially perplexed to know what to do under the circumstances, when no money was to be immediately available. Private universities could limit their enrollments, but state-supported institutions could not decline to take a student who fulfilled the requirements of the state law.

This congestion due to numbers in the lower classes has

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thus become a very real and serious problem, both for the young people of the country and for the universities. It is one that is not peculiar to any one institution, as most of the colleges and universities of the country, and certainly those of the Middle West, both small and large, privately endowed and state-supported, found themselves in the same predicament in the fall of 1919. Notwithstanding the withdrawals during the first year and the very serious drop in attendance of first-year students, the outlook for 1920–21 is for second-year classes in several of the courses that will be almost double the size of any classes which have preceded them. The problem is not confined solely to caring for the first-year students. In fact, already some of the third-year classes are almost one hundred per cent larger this year than ever before. The problem, therefore, before the state universities in particular is how best they can get the desired relief, the better to serve the state and their constituents. Should they seek relief from the legislature thru increased appropriations for buildings, equipment, and instructors, so as to care for the increasing numbers of the young people of the state, that desire to obtain an education, or should they try to deflect some of these students by other paths to the upper classes of the university? Let us see if there is any way out.

I

The history, practise, and present status of the junior college movement has recently been very fully described in a bulletin (1919, No. 35) of the United States Bureau of Education on The Junior College by F. N. McDowell. From this monograph it will be learned that the idea started with President Henry P. Tappan of the University of Michigan in 1852; that it was first put into actual practise when President Harper opened the doors of the University of Chicago in 1892; that the University of California, thru Dean A. F. Lange, kept the idea alive by reports to the faculty in 1892, 1903, and 1907, and embodied the Junior College idea in its Lower Division in 1903; that in

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1910 the first California high school took advantage of the state law of 1907; and that the Universities of Minnesota, Missouri, Texas, Illinois, Wisconsin, and other states have adopted the idea more or less fully. The influence that has caused the development of the junior college has been chiefly the universities; but the normal schools, the demand for extended high school courses, and the small colleges have also had their effect. McDowell shows that these influences have caused the development of four kinds of junior colleges, namely "the lower division or junior college within the university, the normal school accredited for two years of college work, the private junior college, and the public junior college." We may examine these varieties in order.

In recent years, the requirements for admission to the more professional colleges have been advanced, so that in the Colleges of Commerce, Journalism, Law, and Medicine two full years of Arts College work is required for admission to study for their degrees. The tendency of the other professional colleges is in the same direction. The upper two years of the College of Liberal Arts, Philosophy, and Science now form a Senior College for semi-professional, or advanced work in the so-called cultural subjects, and in literature, philosophy, and the pure sciences. For admission thereto, certain requirements are demanded that can be satisfied by specific courses from the first two years of the work of the College of Arts, just as for the other colleges. These first two years now form a Junior College of Arts. Its enlargement, or duplication, would solve the problem for many high school graduates.

A greater degree of cooperation with the normal schools of each state would be helpful in relieving the congestion at the state university. At the present time, there is some transferring of students from these institutions to the universities, just as there is from most of the other colleges and universities of the state. The idea is capable of development, provided it can be shown that adequate classroom and laboratory space is available at the normal

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schools. It might be necessary to increase the number of sections of the classes and to have classes held both in the morning and in the afternoon in the same rooms and laboratories. This would increase the efficiency in the use of the equipment one hundred per cent. Of course, few institutions like to have their students leave and go elsewhere; but, if they can be of greater benefit to the people of the state as a whole by cooperating with the state university, it would seem wise for them to accept the opportunity of leaving their own imprint upon the minds of larger numbers of students.

By the cooperation of the smaller and less well-endowed denominational colleges of the state, these would become private junior colleges to the larger institutions. Some of them might go even so far as to give up their upper classes, in order to extend their influence to more persons. In 1917, there were ninety-three private junior colleges in twenty-five states. Among the arguments given by McDowell for the development of the small college are the "widespread belief that the small college has many advantages over the larger institutions; local pride of the community in the home college; the interest and support of men of wealth of the college town; the strong religious support given to most of these institutions; the democratic spirit of the American people; the increased standards of professional schools above referred to." In this connection, the idea of the combined double-degree curricula enters and might be applied just as well to the smaller colleges and to the normal schools as to the larger colleges and universities of each state. This plan permits the student to spend three years at the college nearest to his home, or of his first choice, then go to the state university for his more professional and technical work in Commerce, Education, Engineering, Home Economics, Journalism, Law, or Medicine, and receive his degree from the first institution at the end of the fourth year, by special arrangement between the two institutions, and his professional degree from the state university on the completion of his

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professional curriculum. This would make him an alumnus of both institutions and bind his affections to both of his alma maters. This plan is being increasingly followed at present and should be encouraged and expanded.

The establishment of local public junior colleges would cause them to act as feeders to all the universities and also to the industries. Since the first junior college was started at Fresno in 1910 under the California law, some thirty-nine have been established up to 1917, half of which are in that state. They are supported by taxation, state aid, and tuition. In California, $75 is received for each student. Of this amount, $60 comes from the county fund and $15 from the State, but it is now proposed to increase this to $120 and $60 respectively, or to a total of $180. In investigating the "reasons given for the organization of public junior colleges," McDowell found that they were given in the following order of importance:—"desire of parents to keep their children at home; to provide a completion school for those who can go no further; the desire of students to secure college work near home; to meet specific local needs; geographical remoteness from a standard college or university; to meet the entrance requirements of professional schools; to provide vocational training more advanced than high school work; financial difficulty in maintaining a four-year course; to provide additional opportunities for teacher training; to procure the segregation of the sexes; and to provide opportunities for higher education under church control."

II

It has already been shown how the normal schools and the privately endowed colleges and universities of each state can, by mutually cooperating with their state university, assist in the more complete education of larger numbers. It is quite conceivable that the legislature of certain states might appropriate sufficient funds wherewith to organize, and direct the state university to establish, a junior college at the university, which would satisfy the needs of all portions of the state and its youth. This

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would mean centralization, decrease in overhead expenses, unity of aim and purpose, and the broadening and democratization of the youth of the state. All of these are desirable.

Moreover, the public junior college would seem a meritorious institution. In 1918, the University of Chicago issued a circular of information stating that it was "prepared to encourage any adequately equipt secondary school to extend its work so as to cover the work now offered in the freshman and sophomore years of the college." This is the challenge to the "secondary schools." Why have they not accepted it in greater numbers? The answer seems to be the cost to the public. But, to quote from the McDowell bulletin:

> "The principal of the Grand Rapids (Mich.) High School estimates that it costs the parents of that city $250,000 annually to send their children away from home to complete their education. Much of this he believes has been saved to the community by the establishment of a junior college. Mr. A. A. Gray estimates that the city of Los Angeles saves $100,000 annually by keeping the two hundred students enrolled in the junior college at home rather than sending them away to the university. Evidence so far seems to show that a junior college can be supported at a cost per pupil very little in excess of the per capita cost of high school pupils, and in California at from $80 to $200 of cost to the city for each student in the junior college. Many call attention to the fact that this could be much reduced by larger enrollments."

On the other hand, among the regulations adopted by the University of Kansas in 1916 was the statement: "It is to be noted that the maintenance of a junior college will involve an expenditure greatly in excess of the expenses of an ordinary high school. Therefore, before organizing a junior college, the community should carefully consider its financial ability to maintain such an institution without impairing the character of the work in the elementary and secondary schools." Legislation has been effected in a number of the states, including California, Michigan, Illinois, Kansas, and Texas. The North Central Association of Schools and Colleges at its meeting in 1917 agreed upon a set of standards for the accrediting of junior colleges. From what has been said above, it

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will be seen that educational authorities have plenty of precedent to go by in laws already enacted, regulations promulgated, schools established, and results obtained during the past ten years of the operation of both public and private junior colleges. The rock upon which so many of the latter, and not a few of the former, have struck and sunk has been the one of cost, as forewarned by the University of Kansas. If the cost is the sole deterrent to the success of the junior college idea in practise, possibly there may be a way of escape from that dreaded obstacle.

Let us first consider how many and what classes of boys and girls would be most likely to be benefited by such a junior college in each of the cities or districts of 30,000 people or of cities having an assessed valuation of over three million dollars, as some of the present laws prescribe. First, there would be those boys and girls who wish to get a college education and who could not afford to go away and could not immediately earn the money wherewith to go. From this class are recruited the mature students who go to the universities to get an education after they have earned a bank account and have proven their need for an education, if they are ever to mount above the ground-floor of their chosen vocation. Second, there would be those boys, and particularly those girls, who are too young and immature to be sent away to college, who have never been outside of the county, who have always leaned on an indulgent father and a self-sacrificing mother, who would be lost in the sea of freshman life and sink beneath the waves of college duties, cares and snares, and who should be kept at home until they had learned to swim with ease in the currents of their home town before venturing into the eddies of the world. Third, there would be those who would be kept at home by home ties and duties, either personal or filial. Usually these would profit greatly and enjoy the possibilities of a college education. Fourth, those who need further moral and religious training before they are thrown into the vortex of city temptations and college life. Fifth, those who are ex-

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pecting to enter one of the professional schools and who could just as well get their preliminary training for Law, Medicine, Theology, Journalism, Commerce, or the like at the home college as elsewhere. Sixth, those who expect to go on into educational work and become teachers themselves. These could get their preliminary training under the local superintendent, principals, and normal school teachers while getting their more academic education. By this means, each city would have its own source of supply of teachers and would be doing its share towards supplying its own needs and those of the state. Seventh, those who are expecting to go into business, whether it be banking, insurance, merchandising, or any other. The fundamental principles are the same. The details may vary. Eighth, those who want to get a vocational education along some trade, art, or vocation higher than that given in a school of the strictly trade-school type. Ninth, to provide a completion or finishing school for those who are not going on to get a higher education. The experience of the University of California is that the more the "finishing courses" are emphasized by the junior colleges, the more the university is relieved of students who stay only for a year or two. McDowell shows that, based on a period of three years, 73 per cent of the graduates of the public junior colleges continued their work in a higher institution, while only 42 per cent of the graduates of private junior colleges did the same. Surely the number and variety of young people who would be benefited and the relief it would mean to the universities ought to justify considerable expenditure in the establishment of junior colleges.

The work done in the junior college should, of course, be of strictly collegiate grade, and the equivalent in content, quality, character, and presentation of the work given at the university. It should be done in a college atmosphere where the student is put on his own responsibility and is not kept in a study room and "assisted in getting his lessons." The teachers should be men and women of experience and training, as good in pedagogic

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ability, and preferably better, than those employed in the local high school. They should be experts in their respective lines of work. They should be college graduates, who have specialized in the subjects that they purpose teaching, or should have had the equivalent in vocational training and experience. Hitherto, when such a type of educational unit has been thought of, it has been in terms of a new building and equipment, and all the expense and trouble that such an idea involves—bonds, sinking funds, delays, and the like—and usually at the curtailment of the building program for grade and high school buildings badly needed for the required education of the children already enrolled.

This sounds expensive. But it has now been suggested that the state law be changed, where necessary, so as to permit and authorize the Boards of Education of cities, school districts, or counties to finance, organize, and operate such junior colleges as the needs of their communities would seem to suggest and warrant and that there should be paid from the state educational funds to the board a specified sum of money for each student enrolled in the junior college. Legislation may also be procured for additional support by gifts, local taxation, and tuition fees. The Board of Education should be authorized to secure and to appoint a suitable president, heads of departments, and assistants who are competent to do the work of organization and instruction, to provide an adequate library and janitor service, and to care for the upkeep of the buildings. Then one or more of the regular high school buildings could be used for the junior college sessions. These sessions could be held from the close of the regular high school session at about two o'clock, or earlier for certain subjects, until five or six o'clock, in order to cover the various assignments of class work. By this means the present high school classrooms, laboratories, and gymnasium would not be idle so many hours in the day, would be more efficiently used, and could be made to do double duty for most of the junior college work. The students would be held for

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not to exceed three hours each day of recitation work, or for four hours including laboratory work. They would come and go from their classes just as at any other college and as their schedules required. Their work would be intensive and not scattered. There would be no intermissions. Their mornings would be free to study, work, help to earn a living and support the family, get a business or trade training or a cooperative education, indulge in junior college athletics if they so desired, or do anything else that was lawful and right. By making the regular high school session begin a little earlier, the junior college session might be finished a little earlier. The janitors would have to do their cleaning after six o'clock rather than before, but such is the usual practise in office buildings and many other places. The cost would include the services of another faculty and teaching force, a little extra janitor service, possibly ten per cent for additional heating, and from fifty to one hundred per cent for additional lighting. In any case, the cost to the citizen, city, and state would be much less than that of the present practise of sending children away from home for the two years during which they are getting their continuation high school and academic education at the junior college in the large university preparatory to their more professional education and training at that institution. The public library of the city could be used for the reference reading. Additional laboratory facilities, shops, and the like would have to be provided for those subjects requiring such equipment, if the local high school did not possess them, or could not get them by the cooperative system, but, at the most, the expense would be light in comparison with the benefits obtained. As these matters differ greatly in different cities, no fixt rules can be laid down concerning them.

III

It may now be asked what effect such legislation and practise will have upon the state universities. It is evident that few rural and small-town communities could be

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served by the nearest city junior college, but would continue to send their high school graduates to one of the colleges of the state university. Some city high school graduates might also go immediately to the university. But the attendance at the junior colleges would constitute a great relief for the universities from the increasing numbers of students in the lower classes, which, we have seen, are causing such serious problems. The freshman class would not so nearly outnumber the rest of the student-body. The atmosphere would be more that of a university and less that of a high school. Intellectual and scientific attainments and serious work would be at a premium. The institution would become more of a university for professional study and for the advanced cultural subjects. Its ideals would be raised. Its rank among the colleges and universities of the country would be still further increased, even if not by increased numbers.

The effect on the cities and their schools would be to increase the value of an education to the children of the city. More children would accept the opportunities offered and provided at their door. They would be kept under the parental roof for more years. Money would be saved to the parents and children. The high school would be benefited, as it would no longer be the capstone of the education locally available. One building would do the work of two and would be used more efficiently. The local industries, businesses, and the schools would be better served by supplying a vocational education to those children who did not propose to go further educationally. Less money would be spent on highly specialized courses given to only a few high school students, and such as only a large university can afford to give. A greater willingness would be developed to invest in the education of the people at public expense with the correspondingly larger dividends proven to accrue from such an investment.

In the United States, the increase in the demand for a collegiate education during the ten years before 1914, as measured by the enrollments of thirty of our leading

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universities, was three and one-fourth times as great as the increase in the population of the country. The present demand is not exactly known, except that it is greater than ever before. The fact that the sum of the enrollments at all of the numerous Ohio colleges is only one-seventh of the 200,000 children of the State of Ohio between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one shows that there are ample possibilities for still further increases in the enrollments of the colleges. The same is probably true of most of the other states. Their citizens are asking that their children receive an education higher and better than that now offered in their high schools. The present facilities of the privately-endowed and of the state-supported normal schools, colleges, and universities are not adequate to meet the demand. What shall be done? One possible solution of the problem is clearly the local junior college.

WILLIAM T. MAGRUDER

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY,
COLUMBUS, OHIO.

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III

THE EX-SERVICE UNDERGRADUATE

There was much speculation upon our entry into the world war as to what effect service with the armed forces of the United States would have upon the undergraduate in the colleges of America when the war was done and he had returned to the classroom. At that time we had just one task to perform—the crushing of the Prussian imperialists who had run amuck in Europe. The unavoidable harm which our democracy or our students might suffer in carrying out this high duty was glossed over or ignored. War in its very essence is a perversion of all the laws of our humanity and of all our normal life: the business of civilization is to protect and conserve, the immediate function of war is to slay and destroy. Our attitude at that time, therefore, was the attitude which the situation manifestly demanded. Loyalty and common sense alike insisted that we say nothing that might impair the morale of those who remained at home and bore what was in many ways the heavier burden of the conflict. The self-imposed inhibitions which all intelligent men so gladly accepted limited the range of our discussion. One does not theorize at the bedside of a sick friend on the gloomy possibilities of the hereafter. The admitted virtues that a great national war inculcates,—bravery, endurance, self-sacrifice, the temporary surrender of one's freedom of action for the common good,—upon these and their like we focused our attention and called upon our readers to do the same. War as a biological necessity or a good *per se* we never as Americans maintained or allowed, and consequently we had some misgivings in our innermost thoughts as to what the effect of service on the undergraduate would be.

But now, with Prussian militarism crushed, we are no

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longer concerned with considerations of expediency, which limit our discussion of war's after-effects, and, what is of still greater importance, we can now base our deductions upon fact, where before we were forced to base them upon speculation and prophecy. The material is ample; the data are many. For peace and demobilization have brought flocking to the doors of our academic houses veterans of the world war in numbers far beyond our capacity comfortably to entertain. In the face of such a cloud of witnesses one haltingly grants the dogmatism of the printed page to conclusions which must fall pitifully short of controlling all the factors in the case. The only validity that an observer can claim for his inferences rests upon the openmindedness with which he comes to his task and the intellectual integrity with which he records what he observes, no matter how widely at variance this may be from his preconceptions.

There is very general agreement that the S. A. T. C. was a venture that never got beyond the experimental stage. Those of us who were engaged in teaching in its courses started our work with an expenditure of energy and of enthusiasm that would scarcely be possible over the longer period of a life devoted to instruction. We hoped from it great things and predicted from what seemed its earlier successes changes in the matter and in the manner of our traditional college courses hardly short of revolutionary. But the armistice closed this curricular laboratory and withdrew the material while our experiment was still incomplete. Along certain lines the experience gained has been of great value. The colleges took to heart the opportunity to which President Butler of Columbia University pointed in one of his public documents and refused to go back to the old paths without first considering anew whither they led. No science will ever again be pursued quite along pre-war lines; language study has mended its fences and has tried to stop those gaps thru which time and effort were lost. Of all these experiments, *post bellum* and *propter bellum*, in the content of the undergraduate

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curriculum, that combination course to which the course in 'war issues' led is being watched by the academic world with the greatest interest. This course, as it is being experimented with in the various colleges, correlates the elementary facts from four great departments of liberal or cultural studies—politics, economics, history and philosophy—which are necessary for an understanding of the bases of contemporary civilization. It is adapted to the freshman year and gives the facts as facts and not as propaganda. We have confidence enough in the cause of truth to believe that a knowledge of the facts will lead to a sweet reasonableness in thought and progress.

But this by-product of the S. A. T. C. is a curricular one. The effect of the training in that corps on the character and the habits of the student is negligible. The reasons for this conclusion are not far to seek. The student, mustered in during October and mustered out in December, was on a campus and in a college atmosphere. Tho he wore a uniform and was forced to obey certain military regulations, he was still under the hand of his old academic instructors in the classroom and there was only a partial break from the old student life. When he returned to college in the mufti he was given academic credit for what he had done and scarcely realized that for a short ten weeks his academic life had slightly departed from its wonted groove. In considering, therefore, the effect of service on the undergraduate we may eliminate those whose experience was confined to the S. A. T. C. and devote our attention rather to the student in the armed forces of the country away from all academic surroundings, in the training camps, on the high seas and in active service abroad. For here it was that the student was freed from the conditions with which he was familiar and which had been, previously to that, the prime factors in molding his habits and his character. What the effects of this service have been is a question which supremely interests the academic world.

First, then, let us consider the attitude of the ex-service

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undergraduate—thus defined—toward the matter of education in general. Intellect, says Professor Erskine, won the war. The ex-service man, on the whole, admits this, and recognizes the value of a college education as undergraduate student never did before. But as numerous are the terms in which he translates that value, as are the temperaments and the ideals of man. To one type the appeal is selfish and narrowly material. It pays, says he, to have a college education. If only for its exemptions and not for its opportunities for larger service, he is impressed with the value of the stamp, at least, of education. The man already in college at our entrance into the war or with the schooling preliminary to a college education was eligible for the S. A. T. C., which seemed a veritable haven of rest to the man immediately inducted into service as a private. Again, the man with a degree or well along in his college course went to the officers' training camps and came out in command of his less fortunate fellows. That many would have gone thru the S. A. T. C. to this same desired goal, had the war lasted longer, was only too evident. And so the ex-service man has come back, whether he reached high office or not, determined to secure this talisman which unlocks the door to opportunity. The aim of this group in its present academic life—and, unfortunately, the group is only too large and has aggravated an evil tendency by no means unknown in our colleges even before the war—is to 'squeak by,' to get the credits and to let the training go. To him culture as culture means nothing. Love of knowledge for its own sake is a hallucination of pedants. He can be driven to do his tasks, for his aim is a baccalaureate diploma. But once let him get above the danger line of failure and his interest ceases. That the worth of this group in terms of social service to the community will be high is not to be expected.

A second type bases his aims upon a higher, but still materialistic, plane. He has kept his eyes intelligently open and has seen the adaptability, the resourcefulness,

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the real efficiency of the college graduate during the war. These qualities he fain would have. His educational ideal is to secure the information and the training which these competent scholars in the trying world of war proved to be of paramount worth. He is in many cases an older man than his fellows; a man who had deserted academic pursuits with the conclusion of his preparatory career and now returns to college to get that training which to him before seemed but the foolish waste of four years of a life all too short. To such no task is too difficult, no assignment too long. Place any burden upon him, as Antipho says of Phormio in the Roman comedy, and he will carry it. But the very intensity of his purpose and the value he places upon his time do at this early period of his college career narrow his view of the ends of education. What he desires is this efficiency which he has seen and admired, and the required subjects which do not lead by a direct path to the information which he thinks produces it, will enlist his attention but not his interest. The practical subjects are to him the be-all and end-all. His attitude toward literature and the cultural subjects in general is one not of hostility, but of amazement or of inquiry. He is unable to see their bearing on practical life, and that bearing must be demonstrated by the skill and patience of intellectual guides who are willing to supplement the work of the lecture room with the largest measure of personal contact. For this type of student is eager to talk and ready 'to be shown;' but the demonstration must be rigid and the personal example convincing. His convictions are strongly held, but held with too much seriousness for him to close his mind to reason. He has just scrapped one set of ideals as faulty; he will take no chances with going wrong in the future. He awaits receptive for wise guidance. From these students we have the right to expect—and I think that that expectation will not prove delusive—efficient and valuable service to the college community and to the larger community of his post-college days.

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A third group among those distinctly a product of service during the war is, perhaps, the most attractive and promising which has ever entered our colleges. They have been brought into contact with all types of minds and interests and have found that there are nine and sixty paths to efficiency and every one of them well-traveled and worth while. These students have come to college with their interests broadened and their sympathies liberalized. Toward the work in the prescribed subjects of the curriculum, tho they may feel that the prescription was not needed by themselves, their attitude is that of the man who wants to get the most out of anything that comes in his way. The old cocksureness and the bored indifference toward that in which the pupil is not primarily interested have changed to a desire to see what there is in the subject that explains its being put in the required list. Only a small percentage of these men have completed the semester now closed without coming to enjoy that which they began as a prescription. Their presence in the class is stimulating to the lecturer and their example is salutary to their classmates. Their virility has been tested in a way that admits of no questioning and with them the consequent fear of showing an intellectual interest has vanished. The influence of this group will be felt thru many succeeding classes of students.

In addition to these three general attitudes toward education the effect of service with the colors on college life is evinced in many ways, some of them tangible, some intangible,—scarcely more than atmospheric. The college student can not be the same that he was in the past, for he is not the same. In actual years he is older and has the maturity which the mere experience of having lived longer brings. But these have been no ordinary years. They have been spent in the forcing house of war, where many have grown from youth to manhood in the space of those intense years. Some have been in positions of authority and have had upon them the responsibility for he lives of their fellows. These men can not revert to

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the attitude of the student of the pre-war period. Most noticeable is this in personal conversation with the students. The talk is the talk of man with man, not of man with youth. They have often traveled widely: "many are the men whose towns they have seen and whose minds they have learnt." Their ideals, political, intellectual, social, religious, moral,—ideals which were the product of home, of town, of church, of family, and of general environment,—have been brought into contact with different ideals as strongly held by others whom they learned to respect, and, in the resulting orientation, their own have lost that odor of sanctity with which they were surrounded. The slow process by which in the past the fortunate or the adventurous individual was liberalized by migration from the small town to the large city, and this liberalization strengthened by travel, has been quickened and has been applied in the mass to hundreds of thousands of young college men who otherwise would have passed thru life without these advantages—advantages which in a state of peace are to be had only by the few.

The open-mindedness which such experiences confer is manifested in the student's concern for things in the political sphere. All are eager to hear discussions or to give their views on the nature of the state and the lessons to be drawn for the present from the past. Even the class in literature or language is not free from questionings along these lines whenever opportunity arises, and perhaps in the political sphere beyond all others we feel that the experience of these tragic years of war has not passed unheeded. The "Ark of the Constitution," to which the politician of yesterday appealed when it served his purpose, has no longer the same occult magic in its application. These men have seen other nations borne safely thru stormy waters in arks entirely different from our own but equally seaworthy. Their interest in comparative government has been aroused and they have a more intelligent knowledge of the nature of our own. The hue and cry that arose some years ago when Mr. Roosevelt sug-

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gested a wide extension of the recall, even to the inclusion of the presidential office, could not again be exercised by the same arguments. Such an extension of the recall may, or may not, be a good thing, but these students have seen other peoples, quite as highly civilized as they and quite as efficient and orderly, working smoothly under this system. If righteous men feel that the basic structure of our government has become too rigid and unwieldy and advance suggestions for its modification or revision, the ex-service student is ready to weigh their arguments without prejudice and without "sickening fear." This gain means much. The smaller the number of fetiches the greater the amount of attention that can be directed to essentials. That this gain has gone far enough, so far as to bridge the gap between conservatism and reasoned progress, it is still too early to say. War arouses ugly passions and these men found among their companions at home and abroad quite enough of chauvinism, spread-eagleism and narrow nationalism to caution one to suspend judgment till the fruits of the war have been tested by more months and years than have as yet passed over our heads.

In the realm of morals the standards may be as high as they were before the war, but the basis of action has changed. Morality by authority has gone. The control of action by the dictum of the church or of the home has largely disappeared, as the younger man has been brought into contact with the more flexible morality of older men or of men from sections or from nations differing from his own. Then, too, the morality of the soldier in time of war has always been a thing apart. Eat, drink and be merry, for to-morrow we die, ever has and ever will bulk large in his philosophy, no matter how idealistic his aims or how worthy his cause. This easy-going hedonism was to a certain extent controlled by the large amount of instruction given in the dangers of sexual disease and by fear of the court martial for drunkenness and immorality. Drunkenness and disease were not tolerated. A clean and sober life

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was secured by arguments from expediency and not from religious or social taboo. The only scientific basis of morality is expediency. There are, however, the higher expediencies as well as the lower, and the appeal for right living had so often in service to be adapted to the weakest members that one can not but view with certain misgivings that side of the ex-service undergraduate's life. He has to an unprecedented degree been brought into contact with standards of morals different from his own, and whether his action, guided by the dictates of expediency, will produce as good results as the old dogmatism remains to be seen. Every change from one standard of conduct to a new and more intelligent view causes a temporary lowering of the moral tone of a community. This statement is as valid for modern America as for ancient Rome and we can not expect the undergraduate to escape entirely the operation of the rule.

In the realm of manners and decorum the effect of the war has been most deplorable. Thrown into contact with men whose standards in this respect were far below his own, the undergraduate, in his very natural attempts to disprove the charge of being "high-brow" and to show himself a "good mixer," adopted the vocabulary of the lowest. Now the army, any army, has never been a mirror which reflected the most refined taste in the choice of words. Yet even the young instructors who went into service with the colors will stoutly maintain the effectiveness, the necessity, they will say, of employing the army's expletives to get results. But whereas the latter have returned to circles in which such words can no longer pass current, the same inhibition does not apply to the undergraduate. He may continue, without falling into disfavor with his mates, the vocabulary of his army days. This will not show, if one knows only the language of his students in the classroom. But let one hear the students conversing where these restraints are removed, at their sports or on student trains, and he will quickly come to the belief that the excesses of student vocabulary in the

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direction of indecency and of profanity have passed almost out of the realm of manners and into the realm of morals. Inasmuch as this is a cheapening and a vulgarizing of student life and intercourse, it is highly to be regretted. The poverty of his vocabulary previously was lamentable enough. Witness the illustration of a distinguished American educator who relates how, after an English scholar had delivered a lecture, important in conception and adorned with all the distinction of European diction, an alumnus of the university where the lecture was being delivered rushed up to the visiting scholar and, grasping him by the hand, declared: "That was a bully lecture." Supplement the existing poverty with riches drawn from the dregs of language, its deformed and illegitimate children, and you have the careless speech of many of the ex-service men. This is one of the minor results of the war which we must recognize and work to efface.

Unexpected benefits which the war conferred are continually appearing to the keen observer. The college man now wants to travel. He wants to get back to see more of Europe at his leisure and not on the hurried excursions of the Y or in the intervals when he was AWOL. The college man sees the advantage of learning to speak some other tongue than his own—that most difficult of all lessons to teach Americans. The college man has been exposed in the camps here and abroad to a variety of entertainment; he has heard lectures on every subject of major interest under the sun. Professors of art and the exponents of the great things in music and drama vied with vaudeville and the movies in keeping him entertained. The undergraduates, as a result, in increasingly large numbers show an interest in and an appreciation of art and music and good drama. Lectures and excursions here and abroad were not entirely in vain. If in service the movies became a habit that he has not yet broken, still some of the higher forms of entertainment offered did not always fall on barren ground. Again, to athletics and the out-of-door life the war has made him all the more

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devoted. Into these he throws himself with all the eagerness with which he went over the top, in action or in practise; and the rougher sports—if that adjective be understood as carrying no connotation of reproach,—football and boxing, have gained an even greater vogue than they had in ante-bellum days. Mr. Arnold Bennett and Mr. Bernard Shaw in England have attempted to make epic the Beckett-Carpentier bout, as if it were a twentieth century repetition of the duel of Paris and Menelaus for the possession of fair Helen. This is evidence that the movement there is in the same direction. A great impetus has been given to intercollegiate rivalry as an outgrowth of the intercompany, interregimental, and international rivalries of the war period at home and abroad.

The above seem to be the chief effects of the war as they appear in the demobilized soldier before us. They have little connection with his actual experiences in battle, where there were such experiences. But with death always in the offing, adding its pressure to the soldier's work and play, the impressions sank deeper than they would have under any other conditions. In all that the student does, be it work or be it play, there is evident to even the least attentive observer an intensity unknown before the war. This intensity may be only transitory, but while it lasts we shall make the most of it.

If then the query arises as to the reason for the great slaughter of students at the end of the first semester of return to the peace basis reported from all over the country, the answer is not far to seek. On the one hand, the distractions of the war and the drawing off of the most capable of the teachers into service lowered the grade of the work in the preparatory schools. This fact the unvarying standards of the College Entrance Examination Board of June, 1919, amply demonstrated. With such unprecedented numbers crowding to the colleges, many of them thru certification or on regents' counts, it was inevitable that the unfit should be numerically, if not proportionally, great. On the other hand, the student who returned from service after a two

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years' interval had forgotten much of the background necessary to take up the work where it was interrupted by the outbreak of hostilities. This demanded more than the usual effort and some were unwilling to expend the amount of labor required. Under the circumstances the results of the first term's work were easily foreseen. They do not seriously affect the general situation.

Out of the welter of the war, with its innumerable privations, its incalculable sufferings, its superhuman heroisms, its countless sacrifices, has emerged a world, not chastened, as we had hoped, to the ways of peace and reason, but with two hostilities and two hatreds growing where one had grown before, with social upheaval everywhere rife, with national lines jealously drawn and closely guarded, with bitter rivalry, where there is not actual chaos, in world trade, with panicky suspicion replacing that business confidence and good faith upon which all extensive international intercourse must rest. The prospect before us would sober even the most irresponsible. Never before have the colleges been called upon for so necessary a service of healing to a world sick and suffering. Never before have they with so serious and so firm a resolve faced their great responsibilities. Among these is the duty to recognize in the ex-service undergraduate a new type in our midst and intelligently to attack the problem of how to correct the evil and how to hold fast the good that spring from his service with the colors.

William Stuart Messer

Dartmouth College,
Hanover, N. H.

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IV

ADMINISTRATIVE COORDINATION

American collegiate architecture has always been conspicuous because of its lack of homogeneity. Buildings have been erected to serve immediate needs and the type of construction apparently has been chosen because of adaptability or because it reflected some current architectural fancy. As these buildings multiplied, the college world suddenly awoke to the fact that in a most important phase of its existence, namely, the monumental character of the buildings comprising its campus, there was wholly lacking that indefinable feeling or atmosphere which properly should be part of the temporal material body which is the outward and visible sign of an inward spiritual and intellectual body. For the past two decades intensive study has been given at practically every institution to an effort to mold together these inharmonious, and, in some respects, conflicting expressions of architectural feeling. Campus conditions are being studied, not so much to provide adequate facilities for present needs, but more particularly to assure a plan of development that, when completed, will typify the underlying spirit of the whole institution.

I

College administration has in a large measure paralleled its architecture, and a study of administrative method, or lack of it, in the eighties and nineties, leads one to wonder how it was possible to maintain high standards in education with such mediocrity in administrative organization. As colleges and universities expanded, administrative departments have been added to ease the load where heaviest, with the result that the administrative charts of no two institutions bear much similarity, and even in nomenclature there is wide divergence in meaning. Even

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in the most important executive positions there is a wide variation in title and function. The chief executive is severally known as President, Chancellor, and Provost. Another important administrative office, namely, Secretary, is in the variety of functions at different institutions largely omnibus in character. The incumbent is not only the recorder for the Trustees, and the custodian of the great seal, but is sometimes Purchasing Agent, Collection Agent, custodian of trust funds, Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds, or the head of any one of several other administrative offices, which properly would appear upon an administrative chart. The Treasurer likewise has no certain status in collegiate circles. In some places he is the most important financial officer, second only to the chief executive in the constructive deliberations of the corporation. Elsewhere his chief functions are those of a collection agency, or he may be merely a disbursing officer. A title common to university practise is that of Bursar, and yet, from personal experience, I know there are no two institutions in the country in which the functions of the Bursar are exactly the same. Within the past few years the degree of variation has been further emphasized in many institutions by the creation of the positions of Comptroller and Business Manager.

It may seem to some that this criticism of intercollegiate nomenclature and terminology is captious. To any such, I would recommend Bulletin No. 22, 1919, issued by the Bureau of Education, and containing a Survey of Higher Education for 1916–1918. In this there is a report made by a Sub-Committee of the National Conference Committee on the Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools, appointed some years ago at the suggestion of Commissioner Claxton, making certain recommendations, which define such simple and constantly used terms as "department," "course," "group," "curriculum," "school" and "college." It seems to me, therefore, that if an organization of business officers desires to effect reforms in college and university administration, one of the first tasks to which it should

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apply itself is to recommend the definition and scope of function of the various administrative departments and offices forming a part of the operating organization. Unless we can agree upon a common definition of the terms used in collegiate business practise, our efforts to coordinate and simplify administration will be materially hampered.

The pathetic lack of business organization and system in many of our institutions was demonstrated during the period of the Students' Army Training Corps. The conferences held by the District Business Managers of the War Department with some of the executives disclosed that apparently the only books of original entry and subsidiary ledgers maintained at these institutions consisted of the backs of envelopes, or scraps of memoranda filed in the wallet of the President. The war has brought many helpful reforms. May we not reasonably feel that interest in the development of scientific business practises in our colleges and universities is a direct result of our recent experience? We were glad to come thru without having the weaknesses of our respective systems publicly exposed, and we are now anxious to set our house in order so that at no future time will we be similarly embarrassed.

II

One very pointed and persistent prod that is speeding us on the path of rectitude is the consciousness that unless we are in a position to show the great foundations,—the Carnegie and the Rockefeller,—and other large dispensers of private benefactions, as well as the agencies that administer and appropriate federal and state funds, that we are a going concern in the quality of the product that we turn out, and that we maintain an adequate organization underlying this, our chances of substantial aid annually grow less. It takes more than a sentimental or emotional appeal to win large donations at the present time. The man who is able to bestow munificently demands assurance that his investment in a charitable or educational enterprise will bring the same large measure of return, or dividends in service performed, that he would expect in investing

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his money in a business enterprise. If you can assure his accountant that you are thoroly up-to-date in your administrative practises and can show him in graphic form the entire business of education as carried on at your plant, the likelihood of favorable consideration is very materially increased.

The corporate powers of practically all of our institutions are vested in a Board of Trustees, who, as the name implies, hold the property of the institution in trust. This legal title to property, reposed in the Trustees, reflects the confidence, or the obligation arising from the confidence, that they will faithfully apply the property according to such confidence. The sacredness of trusteeship has never been questioned, and perversions of trust funds are practically unknown in collegiate finance. If those in whom the legal title to the institution's property is vested are known as trustees, are not those who are entrusted with the management or administration of the affairs of the institution just as much stewards of a public trust? In this sense every administrative officer is co-responsible with the Trustees in the disbursement of the funds entrusted to the institution for the promotion of its work. If we accept this ideal of service, the problem of administrative coordination becomes greatly simplified, and the test of our routine, therefore, should be two-fold; first, does it facilitate the work for which the corporation exists,—namely, to promote and foster the highest educational ideals,—and secondly, does it accomplish such work with the least expenditure consistent with efficient organization?

III

Owing to the confusion in terminology above alluded to it seems to me that a discussion of administrative coordination must necessarily begin with certain generalizations. One of the favorite indoor sports of administrative officers who have to deal with organization is the preparation of diagrams, charts, and other graphs which, according to their views, would give a thoroly articulated organization, in which the natural flow of work is carried in well directed

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currents from one level of administration to the next. I confess that this is a game of most absorbing interest to me. However, I have found it necessary to be constantly on guard against the evil of over-organization. Simplicity, economy, and efficiency do not demand an intricate scheme or system of administration. The primary consideration of every administrative officer should be to do his work in such a way that the most efficient aid is thus given to the educational departments. Experience has shown,—and in this, unfortunately, the human factor plays an important part,—that spheres of influence, responsibility, and authority of the various administrative divisions and officers should be clearly established.

As a basis of discussion, we may regard, I think, an ideal scheme of organization somewhat as follows:

I *Control*—The control of the corporation is vested in the body having legal title to all property and responsible for the direction of its affairs. The control may therefore be regarded as vested in the Board of Trustees.

II *Chief Executive*—The titular head of the institution naturally is the person responsible for the formulation of its educational policy. His responsibility, of course, is to the corporation, and to him logically all other administrative officers are subordinate and more or less directly responsible.

III *Main Divisions*—Under the chief executive, the activities of the institution naturally divide themselves into three zones or spheres of influence:

A—The Educational Division.

B—The Student Welfare Division.

C—The Operating Division.

These divisions in a measure correspond to the manufacturing, sales and operating divisions of an industrial corporation.

By zoning the activities in this way, practically every phase of University work naturally classifies itself. In the educational division there would be two principal groups, namely, the faculties of instruction, which is the

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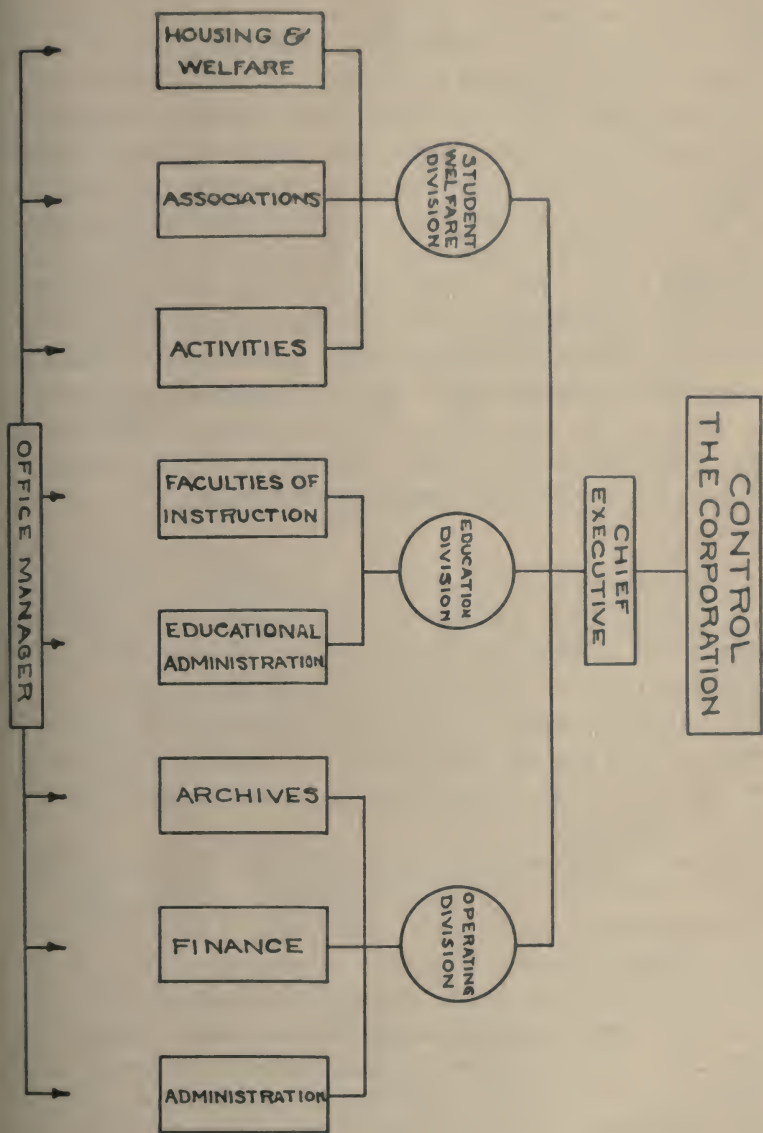

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keystone of our endeavor, and the sub-division of educational administration. Under the Student Welfare Division the groups are (*a*) Housing and Welfare, (*b*) Associations, (*c*) Activities. In the operating division the three subdivisions are (*a*) Archives, (*b*) Finance, (*c*) Administration.

Under each of these divisions, local conditions, no doubt, would disclose the fact that some offices or functionaries would have duties which overlap. Thus the Dormitories would affect a sub-division under Student Welfare, and two sub-divisions under Operating; namely, Finance and Administration. The Registration Office or the Admissions Office similarly would affect Educational Administration and Operating Administration sub-divisions. Having arranged or grouped our respective administrative offices or departments according to such a classification is not the solution of our problems. As a matter of fact, it merely brings us to a practical consideration of them.

IV

If you examine the content of an office of educational administration or operating administration as at present constituted at most institutions, you will find much that calls for reform. The obvious duplication, delay, misinformation, misunderstanding, and unnecessarily involved routine, need not be discussed here. We will devote our attention to more important and far-reaching factors of mal-administration.

Let us take the administrative office of a dean of a school in an institution whose administrative practise has not yet been thoroly modernized, and I take it the illustration will fit conditions where most of us are associated. If the department operates under a budget, we will find that the dean not only administers the instructional budget but also the administrative salaries budget, involving the employment of the office staff as well as the janitors, watchmen and laboratory assistants. He also includes items of building operation and maintenance, and is the responsible custodian of the building or buildings in which his courses are given.

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We are, therefore, presented with a situation in which an officer, whose chief work and training are those of a teacher, not only acts as an educational administrator but also functions as a building superintendent and an office manager. He has neither time nor interest to make tests in efficiency in either of these engrafted duties, with the result that there is a wide variation in the curve of work accomplished in relation to the amount expended. It is not reasonable to assume that a man whose aims are educational, will stop to study the latest developments in building superintendence and administration, nor yet to examine the complexities of modern office management with its application of the best types of labor-saving devices which play such an important part in the conduct of any up-to-date office.

The inference is obvious. One of the first and most important functions of administrative coordination is to relieve educational administrators of all duties which are not purely educational in character. If the divisions of educational administration are organized vertically, certain operating departments should be organized horizontally. Building care, maintenance and custody are no part of educational administration. The needs of the educational departments in the use of the building are of paramount importance, but such use is as tenant and not as owner. Building administration, with charge of the cleaning and policing force, should be vested solely in the Department of Buildings and Grounds, or whatever operating department corresponds thereto.

V

The question of office management and system is probably one of the most important before us, and worthy of serious and earnest consideration. It permeates every activity,—educational, welfare, and operating,—and in its effectiveness spells the success or failure of administrative coordination. Not only is every dean an incipient office manager, but your Directors of Bureaus, Purchasing Agents, Superintendents, and every other administrative officer,

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must, along with their specialties, be more or less attentive students of office practise and routine. As a result, we engage a high-priced executive, and then, instead of using one hundred per cent of his time on those matters in which he is expert, we insist on his devoting a large part of his time and thought to office routine, in which he probably has little interest and less aptitude. The time of a Purchasing Agent should be spent in studying market conditions and in buying to the best advantage, which ofttimes means more than a study of price-lists. An efficient Superintendent should not sap his energies with the vexations and annoyances of office details. Office management is rapidly developing into an exact science calling for the services of a trained expert, and showing in return very material economies, as well as improved administrative routine.

It is essential, therefore, that we relieve educational administration of all duties incident to operation, and that within operation itself, accounting, office practise, and other classifiable duties and responsibilities should be properly segregated.

Another glaring fault of our "unit" system of administrative organization is that each office becomes a little business world in itself. Equipment is unnecessarily duplicated, service is only in part supervised, and practise reflects the experience or whim of the chief. The result is often extravagance and waste, with a low average of accomplishment, as well as heart-aches and discontent among the personnel due to inequalities in the distribution of work and wages. The handling of office practise and system thru a centralized administrative agency will not purge us of all our sins of omission and commission, but it will at least point out for us the high road to business salvation. It will never fully remove that stumbling-block to reform, the human element. Educators are no more jealous of their prerogatives than are administrative officers, and no less responsive when they are appealed to for cooperation. It is only by holding before us the ideal

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that the purpose of all administration is to promote education, and that as administrative officers we are all stewards of a public trust, that we can confidently demand from all those associated with us in this high enterprise, the fullest measure of administrative coordination, which, when stripped of its high-sounding verbiage, is none other than whole-hearted and intelligent "team work."

WILLIAM OTTO MILLER

COMPTROLLER'S OFFICE,
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

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V

PRESENT DAY COLLEGE PROBLEMS

It is quite the fashionable thing nowadays to poke fun at the college professor and the college student in spite of the fact that the usefulness of both has been proved time and again, particularly and recently in the Great War. It is admitted that the young man and woman should have the benefit of higher education, and it is admitted that teachers are necessary for this higher education, but for reasons, both good and bad, the student and the professor come in for a large share of ridicule. Much of it no doubt is deserved, but more of it is not. The writer became a member of a university faculty in his middle life after what may be called a successful business career, and hence he feels that he can write of college problems with some detachment and yet with some knowledge.

I

The founders of the first American colleges could not have foreseen the growth and development of education any more than Morse envisaged the wireless or Watts the gas engine. Their faith in the value of the college must have been supreme; otherwise they would not have made the sacrifices they did. The faith of the fathers has been handed down, but, like their religious faith, has undergone mutations and permutations, until it has become more or less unrecognizable, but it is still going strong. We do not hear so much of Mark Hopkins, his log and his student, nor of the deep impress of the teacher on the individuality of the youth, but we do hear more of the mighty endowments, of commodious and complete laboratories. We do not hear so much about the classics and the humanities, but much more about chemistry, physics, economics, and psychology. We do not hear so much about the devoted

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teachers who are giving their lives humbly and lovingly to the making of gentlemen and scholars, but we do hear continually of schools that produce cake-winners in business and the professions. We hear less of the sacrifices of faithful and conscientious professors, but more, much more, of teachers' unions, or leagues, and of the desertion of the quiet, academic shades for the skyscrapers and industrial plants. So be it. Scholastic waters, too, run under the bridge.

No one can have any quarrel with the statement that the professor must live, and perhaps have his automobile as well. Nor need there be any irreconcilable quarrel with the trend from the humanities to practical and vocational education, if only extremes are avoided. The chief requirement, after all, of the college graduate is that he should have a broad mind, trained and attuned to the needs of society. If the engineer has learned only how to build bridges, he is a failure. If the business man has learned only how to build a fortune for his son to dissipate, his education is useless. If the lawyer's chief purpose is to organize billion dollar trusts, and to keep wealthy clients out of jail, his diploma represents nothing of real worth. If the physician has skill merely in performing more or less difficult and more or less unnecessary operations for high fees, he has fallen short of his noble calling. If, however, all these men gained with their college education a lofty sense of their obligations and responsibilities to society, education is worth all it has cost, whether at the expense of philanthropists or the state.

For the obvious changes in the methods, environment, and conditions of education, the reasons are simple and on the surface, being found in the various changes in society. In the first place must be reckoned the startling numbers of young men and women who are in the colleges, a steady increase for many decades and an unprecedented increase in the year following the War. Enrollment has been swollen from two causes: thousands who dropped out to enter some sort of war service, men and women, have re-

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sumed college work so patriotically interrupted; heavily augmented freshman classes, due to the fictitious prosperity, thanks to which thousands of parents are indulging the ambition and luxury of sending their children to college.

A great deal of pessimism has been uttered around the allegation that too many young people are exposing themselves to higher education, that good mechanics are being spoiled to make poor professional men. There are, however, more serious reasons than that for pessimism in the world to-day. The desire for education is not to be criticized or discouraged, or even the motives back of it, unless they lead to vicious results. We hear it said that young people go to college solely to have a good time and to squander money, or to get into a higher social stratum. Even so, is either one of the motives likely to be a serious crime against society? Certainly they will have a good time, the best time often of their lives, with the chance of preparing themselves for better citizenship. Every professor can give illustrations of trifling, dawdling, butterfly students that have found themselves during the course of four years, and have gone forth to win success. The social instinct is strong in young people, and they must have their fling, both in college and out. If the college allows these "good timers" to go to excess, and lowers scholastic standards to permit them to remain as students, who comes in for the blame? I believe thoroly in a reasonable amount of frivolity, if such is the right word, in student activities, and in inter-collegiate athletics, firmly convinced that, when the side-show overshadows the big tent, the fault is not that of the students, but of those who have the power of control and regulation. If some of the youths in college squander money, whose fault is that? Primarily, of course, of the parents, but they have excuses. One well-to-do father complained to me that the fraternity formal cost him for his son something like $20, and incidentally he criticized the let-alone policy of the college authorities. But, he added, he could make almost any sacrifice rather than have his son look like a "piker." This same father

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had "sacrificed" for his son all thru high school, the sacrifice including a big automobile for the youngster.

The second doubtful motive for attending college, as already set down, is that of improving one's social condition. Is there anything inherently wrong about that? Let the man without sin throw the first stone. Social climbing is one of the beauties and privileges of a democracy. When we can not get out of the stratum in which we are born, we will sink to the pre-war conditions of Europe. If by going to college the young man makes associations that will be of material assistance to him in society and business, knock off his rough corners and polish his manners as well as his mind, why should he not go to college? It is always dangerous to inquire too closely into the motives of youth or age.

The pure motive for a college career is, without question, love of wisdom for its own sake, and for what it will bring in culture, ideas, and good citizenship. Moreover, some of us prefer to think that that is the motive of the great majority. The "rah-rah" boy makes the most noise, but he is by no means typical of the student body, which is generally serious-minded, forward-looking, and ambitious. Besides, when everything has been said, the college graduate does make good in preponderating numbers. The occasional one told about in the newspapers who is found motoring a street car instead of a twin six, the one who has "gone to the dogs," or the one who is found in the penitentiary, proves nothing except the big things the public expects of the graduate.

Numbers, then, have indisputably altered, increased, and complicated the problems of the modern college both as to the character of the students and as to their motives, altho I am not so sure that the present percentage of idlers, spendthrifts, and dunderheads is larger than it was a generation ago. Methods have inevitably changed to meet the new conditions. The close contact between students and teachers is difficult if not impossible. Large classes and sections limit the amount of personal attention

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and observation; quizzes are not as profitable as they should be; formal lectures displace discussion; added stress is necessarily placed upon examinations and theses.

Even more regrettable than these tendencies is the inability of the college to engage capable instructors. Altho endowments and other resources seem enormous, they are far from sufficient to meet the demands. When instruction must be provided for twenty-five hundred students in freshman English, or eighteen hundred in freshman chemistry, where are the teachers to come from, and the money to pay for them? Graduate and undergraduate assistants must be used, with consequent loss of efficiency. It has long been a common and justified complaint of freshmen that they had better teachers in the high school from which they came, whereas they had been led to believe the reverse would be the case. Besides this is the far too frequent indisposition on the part of the professor to teach elementary courses, holding that they are not worthy of his high brows. But how, may it be ever so mildly inquired, are we to have brilliant advanced students if they have not been properly inspired in their freshman year? If we are to measure our institution's success by numbers in attendance we will find the teaching problem increasingly severe, if not insolvable.

II

Other new problems besides those of enlarged attendance are to be reckoned with. The war has affected the trend of education somewhat as it has the methods of government and business, altho perhaps not so spectacularly. Reference has been made to the increased enrollment due to the return of former students and the coming of those whose way has been made easy by prosperity. Another effect is seen in the proved efficiency of science in war and industry, with the corollary that education is indispensable to success. It goes without saying that the college is the short cut to education, even if it is not a royal road. Self-education, commendable as it is, is too long and tortuous a road in this century, and few travel it.

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The unusual registration in the colleges of engineering all over the country indicates that young men are attracted by the prizes in that field. Schools of commerce and business administration are growing like boom towns, for to-day the man with knowledge of the science and theory of economics has a tremendous advantage over the clerk who has been promoted from officeboydom. It is the same advantage that the college-trained law student has over the man who has read law in an attorney's office.

It is an interesting fact that thousands of young men in college to-day have been in the army and navy, with resultant seriousness of purpose, older in years and experience than the average student. A few of them perhaps were spoiled physically and mentally by their awful experiences, but most of them are as bound to win now as they were to beat the Hun to his knees. The federal government's wise determination to make possible an education for ex-service men has brought another problem to the colleges, in that for the most part these men had not prepared for college in the usual way. Their matureness and their determination, however, may offset their handicap.

The war's influence has been felt markedly on the instructional force of the college, hundreds of whom left the campus forever, when they threw themselves into the world conflict as men of the line, as engineers, or as civilians. Remunerative positions later opened for them, too tempting to be denied. Men of bright promise in college work have been lost to the teaching profession, and their successors have to be found and trained. I know older men, however, who refused flattering offers to enter commercial life, because they loved their profession. The war changed materially the proverbial public attitude toward the college professor, for he speedily showed himself much more than a theorist and dreamer unfit for anything else than teaching. It is a pity that there should be this gulf between the professor and the other part of society. The fault, however, is in both their houses. The professor too often maintains a rather superior air, an intellectual holier-than-

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thou attitude, while the public, even the college graduate, often manifests a kind of contempt and disdain that either he can not, or is unwilling to, overcome. I think I have observed a different feeling toward the professor on the part of the student who has returned from service. It is a more of a man-to-man attitude instead of awe, which is the best word I know to describe the old feeling.

The war has had another effect on the college in its relation to the faculty, perhaps more far-reaching than those already suggested, an effect that is the natural reflection of the general unrest. It was manifested first in the agitation for higher salaries, and with that issue raised came a procession of grievances seldom so vigorously put forth by teachers. Remuneration, never large, shrunk before the high cost of living, and if increases in pay did come they were not at all in proper ratio to needs. Organizations were formed, with gestures of alliance with the American Federation of Labor as the panacea of all troubles. With the inevitable adoption of constitutions and platforms a whole pandora box of vexations, anxieties and miseries was opened, from time schedules to janitorial service. The step from criticism of administrative officers to fellow teachers was easy. Restlessness and agitation saturated the atmosphere. The spirit of discontent hovered over the campus. The student body perceived it, the college community recognized it, the money-spending public looked down pityingly on the needy professor, with the remark that if he had any gumption at all he would get out and make a real salary. Campaigns for increased endowments, Rockefeller donations, and appeals to the legislatures were the logical results of the better understanding of the pressing needs of the teachers, and no doubt something is being done to alleviate physical, mental and spiritual distress.

III

Before I became a part of a university I had a well defined idea that college life was peculiarly free from nagging cares, petty jealousies, and the irritations of business life.

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Perhaps an old notion of my student days had endured, that a college professor was a sort of superman, that he was so deeply absorbed in his books that he had neither time nor inclination for the trifling things of life, that he was broadminded, philosophical, contented. Of course I was speedily disillusioned, and rather happily so, for I have discovered that the college professor is altogether human. He craves the comforts of life, even its luxuries. He enjoys his cigar, his cards, and his dance. He can give and take a joke, he can swallow a compliment or even flattery, and more often than not he will show a trace or more of vanity. He may even hate his enemies, or at least he is not above jealousy, altho he, of course, like others, will scarcely admit it.

Stories about the unpracticalness of professors are told and believed, but the same stories could be made to fit any other class of men. I had heard and read amusing descriptions of faculty meetings featured by speeches without good terminal facilities, but let me bear witness that the faculty meeting is just about as expeditiously conducted as other meetings, with as much order and as good results as most, legislative or church, for instance.

I have been much impressed by the courage of the college professor, at least in behalf of his own interests and rights. He is usually ready to stand up for himself even in the presence of his officers. He is seldom a cringer or a sycophant, nor a slavish follower of orders without reason and without protest. And herein lies one of the fundamental college problems which I am somewhat diffident about trying to discuss. The man who enters the college from business life is struck and mystified by what appears to him to be an apparent absence of supervision and discipline. It is not quite absent, of course, but it is small compared to that of business. Professors, especially the older ones, insist on the autonomy of the department, and fight for it. The teachers, even to the lower ranks, have a minimum of interference. However, this problem is being worked out to a solution, as there is a growing

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purpose of supervision and direction even in the larger universities.

Academic freedom of speech is a closely allied problem and much more troublesome. If the college is to find and declare truth it must have wide freedom, but here as elsewhere the line between liberty and license is undefined. It is the ever present temptation of the teacher in the classroom to give as truth what has not been proved, to confuse for his students fact and opinion. He finds himself easily lured outside his own field where expression is even more dangerous. He is on slippery ground again when he speaks in public, and occasionally a crime is committed in the name of academic freedom, but perhaps it is not often enough to cause any worry.

Every conscientious teacher is confronted repeatedly with the problem of how far he has a right to go in dealing with the immature student mind, remembering always the lasting impressions received by those receptive, even if rebellious, minds. The teacher is sometimes confounded by having a more or less random and fugitive utterance returned to him in examination papers, a statement he would rather have forgotten, and disappointed that important observations which he had emphasized with all his pedagogical skill, apparently found no lodging place at all. The conscientious instructor must take anxious thought of such phenomena, and give himself pause in the exercise of his freedom of speech. If education's chief purpose is the building of character, the selection of teachers of character and high ideals is a task of supreme importance, from the lowest grade to the highest. But in this matter the taxpayer evinces about as little interest as he does in his other duties, his single activity consisting of hurling criticism and contumely at the "schoolmarm" and the professor.

When I told one of my intimate friends, a man who had been teaching all his life, that I was getting into university work, he warned me against the insidious danger that abounded in the *ipse dixits* of the teacher, advice that I hardly appreciated at the time, but it has never been for-

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gotten, even if not always followed. I soon discovered that the average professor was inclined to be pretty sure of himself, not only in his own field, but in that of the other man, and this leads me to speak of another problem, if it may be called that.

IV

The college professor is about the severest and most omniscient of critics. He ranges from horizon to horizon of fact and theory, from zenith to nadir of history, mechanics, or domestic science. He more or less consciously prides himself on his power of orientation on uncharted seas of knowledge or near-knowledge.

The reason is not far to seek; its psychology, to invoke the favorite twentieth century word, is not puzzling. The professor studies diligently and digs deeply into his own subject, he cultivates the critical as well as the scientific spirit. He becomes in effect a master of his little field, a princeling in his petty domain. His self-confidence established here, it is the most natural thing in the world for him to feel a sense of superiority in other things, which is simply another term for the critical sense. Added to this is the certainty of self, resulting from over-contact with the immature student intellect, his reclusion and aloofness from extramural life, and a sort of immunity from criticism, or at least ignorance of unfavorable comment. This may not be a strictly scientific, psychological dissection, or even diagnosis of the case, but it will serve. The point to be conveyed is, fundamentally, that the manner of life of the professor tends to make him a general critic of times, manners, and morals with boldness, nay, often, recklessness of expression that is unintentionally stinging and blood-bringing.

An illustration may be enlightening. In my early days in the university I thought of a radical innovation in the method of handling the work in my department. I wrote a number of letters to professors in other institutions, asking advice. All of them nodded approval of the idea, but warned against putting it into practise for the reason that

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it would bring down upon my devoted head criticism from other members of the faculty. As approval of the plan was all I wanted, I was green enough and brave enough to act. The warning was justified by results, but as my skin had become toughened I survived, with the satisfaction that the plan has been good for the students.

This illustration reveals, too, a curious contradiction. I have referred to the insistence on the autonomy of department and teacher. The latter is inclined to resent meddling with his work, but he is not in the least disinclined to interfere with others. It has jarred me at times to have my students tell me that Professor So-and-So had made some slurring remark about the profession in which I was interested. In one instance I was impelled to remind Professor So-and-So of his statements and show him his error, especially as he had not been supported by the facts. He was mildly surprised at my temerity, I suppose, but declared that he must have been misunderstood by the students.

This must be said for the critical college professor, that he is not in the least malevolent, nor purposely destructive, any more than are the lawyers who bicker across the counsel table. What are termed personalities are seldom indulged. The college spirit is kindly. Small jealousies and tittle-tattle are there, of course, but in far less degree than I have found elsewhere. The quarreling and fault-finding are more like those of the loving family circle whose members may get on each other's nerves.

V

Men are, for the most part, in college teaching because they want to be, because they like the life, and because they sincerely believe theirs is the greatest vocation in the world. Some of them may have had the mistaken notion that the work was soft and the tenure secure. Indeed, there are lazy teachers just as there are lazy preachers, but faithful honest teaching is about as arduous as anything I know of, both as to number of hours and intensity. It is just about impossible to make the layman see anything more than the two or three classes the professor meets each day, for he

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can not see the hours of preparation that are required, or the almost endless amount of routine, student conferences, committee work, correspondence, examination papers, and administrative duties, not to mention research. This is not to say there is no lost motion, frequent lack of system with the resultant failure of efficiency, but on the whole the educational machine probably functions about as well as others.

The curve of honesty and sincerity in the teaching profession is high, particularly when the small amount of supervision is taken into consideration. Ambition here, as elsewhere, is a sharp spur, not to be sure, the ambition to high salary, for that hope was abandoned at the threshold, but the ambition for advancement in rank and in reputation in the educational and scientific world. A monograph is a high reward for months of the most exacting labor. Recognition by a learned society is ample remuneration for quarts of midnight oil.

To many of us contact with youth, and its accompanying opportunity to guide, counsel, and befriend, is beyond the price of rubies. To watch the development of the expanding mind, to discover signs of brilliancy, and perhaps to direct overflowing enthusiasm is full compensation for the discouragements and disappointments that come to every teacher. To find the name of a student over an article in a magazine is cause for boastful pride, or to hear of his advancement in his profession, one of the joys in life.

It is cause for regret that at rare times are found professors who have not the right amount of sympathy for the student. They have no patience with the lightheartedness and carefreeness of young men and women. They either had no youth themselves or buried it beyond hope of resurrection, as some parents have done. They deride student activities, good and bad, they see nothing but unmitigated evil in fraternities and sororities, they would abolish athletics, they would make the college a monastery. In short, they have missed the point of education.

It should be said in all justice to this unsympathetic class

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that some of them are actually diffident and unmagnetic by nature, rather than intentionally cold and indifferent. They are almost afraid of their students, and to conceal this fear they put on an extra amount of dignity, if it may be called that. Like other kinds, professorial dignity may or may not be worn becomingly. When it prevents meeting of students and teachers in man-to-man fashion, it should be scrapped. This super-dignity is more likely to obtain among the younger teachers, as it did in the army among the second lieutenants. Let the student once get the impression that a professor is unfeeling or unfair, that he is swayed by personal dislikes and prejudices, that he is unapproachable and stiff-necked, his usefulness is sadly impaired, no matter how fine his scholarship. No less grave is the reputation for being easy and too good natured, for a course that is too popular is as suspicious as one that is generally avoided. "Why is it," once asked a student with wisdom beyond his years, "that the snap courses are always uninteresting?"

In this connection one of the minor problems may be hinted at, that is, the adjustment of courses as to the amount of time required for each. Unquestionably some professors are unreasonable in their demands which force the student to sacrifice other studies. Tasks are set that the student sees no good reason for and he enters upon grumblingly, whereas a heart-to-heart talk would have smoothed the way. A better understanding and hearty cooperation between student and teacher is as vital as it is between labor and capital, if happy results are to be insured. Broadly speaking, the student is not overburdened, perhaps he has not enough to do. Students who have been in officers' training camps and aviation schools will admit that college work is mere play.

To the casual onlooker college life seems mostly a meeting place for frivolous youngsters and indolent and self-satisfied teachers. He sees principally the frothy and the spectacular, the football games, the dramatic perform-

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ances, the glee club concerts, and the publications. He hears much of the dances and other manifestations of the social instinct, gone to extremes, no doubt. He is shocked by extravagances of money, energy, and time. But he does not appreciate the earnest aspect of it, the real meaning, the deep significance. He does not realize the sacrifices that thousands of students are making every year to gain an education, how profitably they use their time and opportunity. The outsider does not know anything about the departmental societies which the students organize to supplement classroom requirements. Neither does he know of the activities along religious and social service lines. Notwithstanding outcroppings of snobbishness here and there, the college is splendid training for democracy. College students are keen to detect sham and hypocrisy. Let us never forget that the country's future leaders are now in the colleges.

JOSEPH S. MYERS

DEPARTMENT OF JOURNALISM,
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

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VI

SHALL IT BE LATIN OR GREEK?

I have recently collected statistics from the twenty-six New England Liberal Arts colleges, showing how many students in the first semester of the academic year 1919–20 were enrolled in courses in Greek and in Latin respectively. By courses in Greek or Latin, I mean courses the work of which consists either entirely or largely in the study or use of the Greek and Latin languages respectively, either in learning the language or using the language for reading Greek or Latin literature. The figures which I collected show that 3834 students were enrolled in Latin courses, and 1833 in Greek. In the three Catholic colleges (Boston College, Holy Cross and Assumption), in which at least two years of both Greek and Latin are required of all students, 832 students were enrolled in Latin, and 954 in Greek. If these be deducted from the total number, the figures for the remaining 23 colleges, which alone are really typical of the prevailing trend in college education as regards Greek and Latin, are: Latin 3002, Greek 879. Of these students 21 were taking first year Latin, and 433 were taking first year Greek. Deducting these from the totals just stated we find that in courses in Latin and Greek respectively, more advanced than first year courses, 2981 were enrolled in Latin, and 446 in Greek. As to the public high schools, the figures for Worcester for the second semester of 1919–20 are probably fairly typical of the conditions in the larger cities. In the Worcester high schools, with a total enrollment of 3619, there were 891 pupils in Latin, and 33 in Greek.

The general situation revealed by these statistics may be roughly described as follows: In the public high schools Latin is studied by a very substantial number of pupils, a number distinctly large, both absolutely and relatively

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to the whole number of high school pupils; Greek has, speaking broadly, almost disappeared. In the liberal arts colleges, the Catholic colleges being excluded, Latin, presupposing in almost all cases three or four years of high school study, was taken in the year 1919–20 by about four times as many as took Greek, of whom almost exactly one half were taking beginners' Greek. Or, to put the case differently, if you deduct from the total number studying Greek those who were in the first and second year of college Greek respectively, thus comparing the Latin students who have had at least three or four years of high school Latin, with the Greek students who have had at least two years previous study of Greek in college, or its equivalent in high school, the figures are: Latin 2923, Greek 334, a proportion of about 9 to 1.

Let me approach the subject which I have in mind by asking this question: What would a competent disinterested observer, one who had a large familiarity with the issues involved, think about this very marked disparity between the number of students in Latin and in Greek, respectively? Is it natural? Is it inevitable? Is it desirable?

The question as it touches the high schools may be disposed of briefly. Broadly speaking, the principal values connected with such a study of Latin as is actually possible in our high schools, I consider to be three: (1) help in the understanding and effective use of the English language; (2) mental training; (3) help in the learning of other foreign languages, especially the Romance languages. The values arising from the study of Greek in the high school, are, I think, the same in kind as those of Latin; they are not, however, the same in degree. The value of Greek, as mental training, for those who have good aptitude for languages, is substantialy the same as the value of Latin. But for knowledge of English, and as a basis for the study of the Romance languages, the value of Latin is obviously greater. Therefore, for pupils who devote not more than three or four years to the study of ancient language and

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especially for those whose formal education ceases with the high school—and this is, of course, a very large proportion of all high school pupils—I hold that it is natural and wise that they should study Latin rather than Greek. I do believe, however, that it would be well if more students who go to college and there take Greek, should begin Greek in the high school. But in any case this number would be relatively small. In the high school, then, it is natural that the Latin students should greatly outnumber the Greek.

Let us now turn out attention to the conditions in liberal arts colleges. For the non-specializing college student, the most important values of either Latin or Greek in their higher reaches; *i. e.*, when the study is carried beyond the elementary, stages, are two: (1) for the reading of literature, and especially for the reading of poetry; (2) for getting an insight into the spirit and trend, into the large fundamental characteristics of the civilization or culture; and along with this for gaining a larger and deeper understanding of our own present civilization.

Let me now consider a little more closely the second value which I have just mentioned. I assert that one of the principal values of the study of the Latin or Greek language in its higher reaches is to give the student a sympathetic understanding of the distinctive characteristics of the racial genius, the civilization and culture of the Greeks and Romans respectively; one of the aims being, of course, that the student shall utilize for himself—shall incorporate into his own life—such elements of the foreign civilization, of its interests, tastes and aptitudes, as seem to him to be good and true and useful for himself as an individual and as a member of society. Are the values of this kind the same for Latin as for Greek?

This depends obviously on the nature and character of Greek and Roman civilization respectively, on the racial genius of these two peoples, and the distinctive characteristics of their culture. Are the spirit and trend of Greek and Roman civilization, the racial genius of Greeks

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and Romans, identical or substantially so? Obviously, they are not. Yet I can not help feeling that about this matter much confusion of thought, much looseness and error of statement has existed and still exists, not only among students of education in general but also among teachers and students of Greek and Latin. As one evidence of this looseness and inaccuracy of thought and statement, I point to the use of the terms "classics" and "classical." I refer to the fact that in a great deal of present day discussion, as also for many years past, Greek and Latin are lumped together under the term "classics," with the general implication that for educational purposes there is no essential difference between them, that they are virtually interchangeable units. This, in my judgment, is a complete error. Because the study of the Greek and of the Latin languages, especially in their elementary stages, have much in common, because they are both highly inflected languages, and because the disciplinary value of such study of both languages is much the same, it does not follow that Greek and Roman racial genius, civilization and culture are practically identical. I utter, of course, a mere truism when I say that from almost any significant point of view two nations could hardly be found more utterly different, indeed more diametrically opposite than the Greeks and the Romans. The Romans were pre-eminently doers, the Greeks, thinkers; the Romans were warriors, conquerors, organizers, administrators, and law-givers, but intellectually matter-of-fact, timid, unoriginal; the Greeks were thinkers, bold, original, and subtle; they possessed a vivid and wonderfully prolific imagination; and above all they were artists, lovers and creators of the beautiful.

Assuming the general truth of the contrast between the racial genius and the civilization of Greece and Rome, I would next ask this question: Do the people of the United States need more to-day the lesson of Rome or the lesson of Greece? Are the defects of United States civilization to-day along the line of the characteristic merits and

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strengths of Greece or of Rome? Or, to limit the question somewhat, do the students in the liberal arts colleges, if one of the chief aims of the college is to help the student to make his life a rounded whole, to develop in harmonious proportion his capacities—intellectual, aesthetic, and spiritual—do the students, I say, on the whole, as things actually stand in our colleges to-day, need more the distinctive lesson of Rome or of Greece? To discuss this question with moderate completeness would, of course, require not a paragraph but a book; at this time I can not discuss it at all. My own opinion is that, beyond any serious question, the United States needs more to-day the lesson of Greece than of Rome; that the greatest defects and shortcomings in our present civilization are such as to demand for correction and amelioration the deep, fundamental, distinctive qualities of the Greeks much more than those of the Romans. Does the United States to-day stand more in need of doers or of thinkers? Is there a greater lack of "practical" men or of thoughtful men, men who have faith in and loyalty to patient, earnest, unprejudiced and open-minded thinking, such a faith as that which Socrates held and for which he lived, and died? Do you agree entirely with the federal judge who said not long ago that what the American people need is ten per cent of thought and ninety per cent of action? On the whole, is there a greater lack of men who can and will build sky-scrapers and locomotives and huge factories and automobiles, and of those who have an interest in these things and know how to use them; or of men who can and will paint beautiful pictures, compose beautiful music, design beautiful buildings and write poems or dramas or fiction of truth and beauty and power? I think myself that Mahaffy was not far wrong when he said:[1] "Anyone with the smallest insight into the matter knows full well that the loss of Latin is as nothing compared to that of Greek." If it is true, then, that the United States needs more today the lesson of Greece than of Rome, the conclusion follows

[1] *What have the Greeks done for modern civilization?* p. 22.

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that the claims of Greek language and literature are, with reference to this possible value, stronger than the claims of Latin.

I pass now to the second of the two chief values which I mentioned above as coming from the study of Greek or Latin, in their upper reaches, *i. e.*, the value arising from the reading of Greek and Latin literature, in the original. In the field of literature I consider poetry, for the college student of Greek or Latin, to be of especial importance, and for two very definite reasons. First, the fundamental and characteristic qualities of literature—imagination, emotion, form—are found obviously in greater concentration in poetry than in prose. Secondly, in poetry the element of form, in comparison with the total value, consisting of the form plus the thought, is of greater relative importance than it is in prose. In other words, in poetry, by and large, the actual words of the poet—the sounds and rhythms—are much more important than in prose. Horace, for example, loses vastly more in translation than does Cicero. Since the total amount of either Greek or Latin literature that can be read in the original by college students in one or two years is relatively small, only a small fraction of the whole body, common sense dictates that the student spend his time where knowledge of the original is most necessary and most rewarding.

Under these conditions, for the college student, man or woman, how does the claim of Greek literature compare with the claim of Latin literature? This depends largely upon the relative merit and rank of the two literatures. I think you will all agree with me that on the basis of intrinsic and absolute literary worth and of rank in world literature, Greek literature is distinctly superior to Latin. The simple undeniable fact is that Latin literature is not, measured on an absolute basis, one of the greater literatures of Europe. It is true, of course, that Latin literature has had a very great influence upon other literatures, an influence disproportionate to its intrinsic merit. Yet this is no cogent objection to my argument, for I am considering

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not specializers in literature, but the ordinary garden variety of college students; as to whom the pertinent question is not whether he shall know the ins and outs of literary influences, but rather whether he shall have a slight acquaintance with even the great mountain peaks of literature. Let us suppose that a highly competent person or group of persons set out to make a selection, sharply limited in extent, of the intrinsically best and greatest literature of Western civilization; in such a selection obviously the Greek literature would greatly outweigh the Latin in (*a*) the number of authors included, and (*b*) the total amount of prose and poetry, especially the latter.

Let me give one concrete illustration of a selection somewhat like the one which I have suggested. In School and Society for August 16, 1919, is a brief article by H. F. Roberts, in which he gives a tentative outline for a course which should include the masterpieces of the western world in architecture, art, music, and literature—which would constitute, to use his own words, "an irreducible minimum, the culture of obligation which every student should have." Here is his selection in literature: Plato's Phaedo, the Oresteia of Aeschylus, the Oedipus Tyrannus, Oedipus Coloneus and Antigone of Sophocles, the Medea and Iphigenia Taurica of Euripides, the Iliad and the Odyssey, Dante's Divina Commedia, Hamlet, and Faust; from the Bible, selections from Genesis, Isaiah, Job, the Psalms, the gospels, and the epistles of Paul. My point is obvious; of the eight authors mentioned, apart from the Bible, five are Greek; no Latin author is included. Mr. Roberts further says:

> "The writer would fain include in this imperative demand some study of the Greek language in and for itself, as the highest cultural type of linguistic expression, and as one of the greatest keys to the human mind. Barrenness of teaching, however, combined with a very crass desire for that knowledge only which brings immediate material success, and with the very real practical necessity for acquiring in the schools the technical means of gaining subsistence, have practically banished this supreme agent of intellectual culture, to our eternal loss."

Let me cite also the opinion expressed by Henri Weil, the distinguished French scholar, surely a competent

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judge. In his *Études sur le Drame Antique* p. 248, he speaks as follows: "Avec Homère la tragedie grecque est le legs le plus précieux que l'antiquité classique nous ait laissé en fait de poesie." If then my judgment as to the relative merits of Greek and Latin literature is correct, it follows that on this score the claim of Greek upon the non-specializing college student is distinctly stronger than that of Latin.

Let me now make a very concrete application of the ideas I have been expressing. Take the case of a student who will give six years in all to ancient language; then compare on the basis of literature these two programs: (1) six years of Latin (high school four and college two); and (2) Latin three years and Greek three years. In the former case, the student might read Vergil, and selections from Cicero, Horace, Catullus, Livy, and possibly Lucretius, Pliny, and Tacitus. In the latter case, Vergil, Homer (Iliad or Odyssey complete); Prometheus Bound, Oedipus Tyrannus, and Medea in the original; the Oresteia, two plays of Sophocles, and two plays of Euripides in translation, and selections from Plato. From the point of view of literature, it seems to me that the odds are strongly in favor of the latter combination; the difference is measured by comparing the Latin authors omitted under program two with the Greek authors omitted under program one. One objection which can be made to the proposed arrangement is this: that it sacrifices the advantage which comes from the power and facility which are gained by continuing a language like Latin four, five, or six years. I frankly admit that this is a disadvantage, but is not this loss more than offset by the gain of an acquaintance with Homer and Greek tragedy and some contact with Greek genius and civilization?

My general conclusion then is that the existing disproportion between the number of Latin students and of Greek students respectively in the New England colleges is unjustifiable on any fair basis of judgment, and is certainly not to the best advantage of American civilization.

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It is worth while, I think, to ask here how this condition has come about. Up to about thirty years ago the difference between the number of students in Latin and in Greek respectively was not great, one very obvious reason being that nearly all colleges required for the A. B. degree both Latin and Greek thru the freshman year. These causes have, of course, been various. Among them are these: the insistent trend toward subjects that are described as practical; the appearance of new subjects in the curriculum, which naturally reduce the time available for the ancient language unit; growing disinclination toward hard subjects, fostered by the entertainment theory of education; the lack of any widespread belief in the value of literary culture; a pronounced change in the cultural and social background, which is represented by the students of our colleges. Please observe here, however, that all these causes would naturally operate about as much against Latin as against Greek. What special causes have operated to the disadvantage of Greek in college?

First, I think, certain causes inherent in the language or in the situation. Among these are the strangeness of the Greek letters, the prevalent opinion among outsiders that Greek is much harder than Latin, the actual fact that first year Greek is somewhat harder than Latin. Very important, too, is the fact that Greek is studied so little in high schools compared with Latin; many boys and girls not only are ignorant of the real values in Greek but are hardly aware of its existence. But another reason, and this is the one which I desire to emphasize here, is not, like these which I have just mentioned, unavoidable. It is the fact that on the whole ever since, twenty or thirty years ago, colleges began to drop the requirement of Greek for admission to college as a candidate for the A. B. degree, Greek has, by the definite requirements of the colleges, as to admission, or as to requirements for the A. B. degree, been placed at a distinct disadvantage as compared with Latin. As soon as colleges ceased to require Greek for admission, three things at least were necessary,

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if the college requirements were to be as favorable for Greek as for Latin: (1) to make Greek optional with Latin for admission; (2) to offer beginners' Greek in college; (3) to allow students, once in college, to choose freely between beginning Greek or continuing Latin. In no single instance, I think, was each of these three things done, promptly and vigorously.

It would be natural at this point to trace at least briefly the history of the treatment of Greek in the colleges during the past quarter of a century, but I have not time for that and proceed at once to consider briefly the present situation. In what ways and how far is Greek at the present time, by the specific requirements of the colleges, placed at a disadvantage compared with Latin? Latin is absolutely required for admission to the A. B. course in eleven colleges (Assumption, Boston College, Bowdoin, Colby, Holy Cross, Mount Holyoke, Vermont, Wellesley, Wheaton, Williams, Yale); Greek is absolutely required for admission in no college, not even the Catholic colleges. Obviously in these eleven institutions Latin has an advantage over Greek. I do not, of course, argue that Greek should be required; I do, however, believe that in all colleges which do not require both Greek and Latin for the A. B. degree Greek should be made optional with Latin for admission. This plan, be it observed, is already followed in ten colleges (Amherst, Boston University, Brown, Harvard, Middlebury, Radcliffe, Smith, Trinity, Tufts, Wesleyan). As to the college requirement for the A. B. degree, the number of colleges which absolutely require Greek is four (Assumption, Boston College, Holy Cross, Vermont). The number absolutely requiring Latin is five (the four just mentioned and Bates). But in seven colleges (Boston University, Trinity, Wesleyan, Williams, Yale, Colby and Dartmouth) which nominally allow Greek as alternative with Latin, this alternative Greek presupposes three units of high school Greek; and since the number of students who offer three units of high school Greek is very small, the actual result is that nearly all the students

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are forced to take Latin in college, after having already had four years in the high school. Boston University furnishes a striking illustration of the way in which this arrangement works to the disadvantage of Greek. In the first semester of 1919–20 there were 171 students in Latin, all of whom had had either three or four years of Latin in secondary school; there were twenty-three students in Greek, of whom twelve were in first year (college) Greek and three in second year Greek. Observe by way of contrast the situation at Amherst and at Harvard, in both of which Greek is placed upon substantially equal terms with Latin. At Amherst there were 141 students in Latin and 122 in Greek; at Harvard, 118 students in Latin and 115 in Greek. These figures seem to indicate that with a fair field and no unwarranted favor for either there is no such disparity of numbers between Latin and Greek as is found, under existing conditions, in the colleges as a whole.

Finally, what should be done about it? My platform, stated very briefly and dogmatically, is as follows: First, recognize that Greek and Latin civilizations and literatures are not to be lumped indiscriminately together, that they are not interchangeable units; and that the Latin and Greek languages respectively are the keys to two very different sets of values. Admit also that as matters now stand, students under certain conditions have a perfect right, indeed in many cases are obliged, to choose between Latin and Greek. Remember that the great majority of students to-day are going to devote to the ancient language unit not more than five or six years, and that if they are required to take four or five years of Latin, there is precious little time left for Greek.

Therefore, so arrange the college requirements, both as to admission and within the college, that the dice are not loaded in favor of Latin to the disadvantage of Greek. Greek, as compared with Latin, has under any conditions certain inescapable handicaps; in the name of common fairness, and with reference to the best interests of our

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people, do not increase these handicaps unnecessarily. Let those who choose to specialize in Latin or Greek and those who have a vocational interest in either of them, take care of themselves. For the general non-specializing student, give him a free choice between continuing Latin after three years, and dropping Latin and taking on Greek; also make Greek optional with Latin for admission to college, and make the amounts required for admission two years of Greek, or three years of Latin. Or, if some colleges wish to require not less than four years of ancient language for admission, why not make the requirement either four years of Latin, or three years of Latin plus two years of Greek, one or the other to be continued at least one year in college?

Let all the colleges unite vigorously in the clear and emphatic policy of regarding as the normal arrangement two years of Greek in the high school; this need not discourage at all any schools from offering three years if they wish. At present every college in New England gives full credit for two years of Greek, except Williams. Give a beginners' course in college to be completed in one year that will bring students approximately to a level with the two-year high school students. Give a course to follow this unit that will offer the richest possible reward for the previous study of the language, a course which puts the loud pedal on literature and especially poetry. Put in charge of this course the best possible teacher available—not necessarily the greatest researcher or the most prolific writer. And finally, put this course on at least even terms with Latin.

HAVEN D. BRACKETT

CLARK COLLEGE,
WORCESTER, MASS.

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VII

DISCUSSION

SUPERVISED EMPLOYMENT IN UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

The graduate school of business administration at Harvard University, being a graduate department, must necessarily limit the supervision of students' employment to the summer vacation. This course is two years in length and there is, of course, but the one summer vacation. Each student is required to spend one summer in some industry in the line of work he has chosen as his specialty. The supervision will not be too close and the student is probably left more or less to work out problems for himself. This method of summer supervised employment, however, has nothing to commend itself to other types of business schools. It is adaptable only to graduate departments where the time of the course is shortened.

For a number of years a cooperative scheme has been in operation at the University of Cincinnati in the college of engineering. When the colleges of engineering and commerce were merged, a year ago, into the one department—the college of engineering and commerce—this plan was also inaugurated for the work in commerce. Each student has an alternate who, in turn, spends two weeks in the university and two weeks in the industry. Thus one group of students is given theoretical instruction in the college hall for two weeks while the other half works in actual business establishments. At the end of two weeks the work is reversed and during the year the two groups alternate. In that way each job in the industry is always filled. With the period of changing, that is, every two weeks, the alternates hold a conference and discuss details of their work with the incoming men to acquaint them with new developments in the work. The cooperation of employers in this

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work has been splendid, and frequent reports are made to the college authorities. In each business the schedule is so arranged that the theoretical and practical work of a given period covers the same subject so far as is practicable. Students go thru various departments of the business during the course.

The Cincinnati curriculum covers five years and includes the classroom and practise work. The first half is devoted to production work and students' work in the departments of the foundry, such as the machine, assembly, and stock divisions. The latter half is spent in commercial departments as comptrollers, traffic, purchasing, sales, order, advertising, cost accounting and planning departments. The department thru which a student passes and the length of time in each depends in a large measure on whether he wishes to become an office executive, a sales manager or a production chief. The Cincinnati authorities state that Harvard, Georgia Tech, and Pittsburgh are adopting the Cincinnati plan in connection with engineering education. Altho this scheme is one which has been tried and accepted in engineering circles, its acceptance in business school work depends on the ultimate success with which it meets in Cincinnati. At the end of the first year of actual operation in commercial work, it is too early to vouch for its general acceptance as a means for supervised business employment.

At Boston University, in the college of business administration, students in the day division have little, if any, opportunity to test the instruction received in class. During the junior year a series of round tables are arranged and various kinds of employment are discussed so the men may have an idea of different businesses. The senior year in college each student becomes a member of the evening division and carries one or two courses there. During the day he must be employed and the college vocational counselor supervises the work. Frequent reports are made by the employer and students, and conferences may be arranged also. At the end of the year a lengthy report on

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this supervised employment is made by each student. Students in the evening division may complete the work in four to six or seven years, depending upon their fitness for the work and their previous training. A certain number of credit hours are allowed for the employment of students during the years spent in the evening division. The maximum number of hours are not now given, however, unless the student has shown considerable progress in his daily work at the office or store. He must advance, not only in salary, but in the responsibility of his position. This, in a measure, does away with one criticism of this form of supervised employment, that is, no longer may a student be granted his credit hours for practical work until he has proven conclusively that he has really earned them. He must show that he has used his theoretical instruction in every day work and that he has forged ahead in his position.

Within the past year Syracuse University's school of business administration has adopted a new rule requiring the supervised employment of all students during summer vacations at the end of the sophomore and junior years. Georgia Tech's school of commerce also requires two years of actual experience for the students of the evening division, altho no credit hours are given for this work. Queen's University, Canada, requires in its department of commerce supervised employment for at least one summer vacation. Other institutions all over the country are gradually adjusting or readjusting their curricula to include some form or other of supervised employment.

It is certain that the problem of supervised employment must be met and solved by every type of university school of commerce or business administration. Whether it be in the graduate or the undergraduate department, in the municipal institution or in the school of commerce or business administration, the problem is, after all, one which vitally affects the entire educational system of the country. Half and half time in actual business, summer vacation work, a year of actual employment, the combination of

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day employment and evening instruction—whatever the solution may be, it should link up the colleges to the business interests of each locality. It is equally certain that the methods of employment mentioned herein are at best educational experiments. Whether they succeed or fail depends in a large measure on the kind of men the schools turn out—the finished or the partly finished product which the schools hand over to the business men for their establishments.

RALPH L. POWER

COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY,
WILLIAMSBURG, VA.

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VIII

REVIEWS

The college and new America—By JAY WILLIAM HUDSON. D. Appleton and Company. 1920. 302 p.

There is no point in arguing for the necessity of the social reconstruction of the world; the world has already begun it. There is great point in defining just what it means and what part the colleges must play in it. So the author summarizes the ambitious aim of this stimulating little volume. The message is indeed timely. The consequences of the World War have been in many ways reactionary—not to say disheartening. During the war idealists sought refuge or consolation from present squalor and woe in too optimistic expectation of the millennial fruits of peace. Such hopes have been inevitably disappointed. The world that showed the depth of its helpless depravity in 1914 is far from any height of excellence in 1920.

The author discusses in turn the strength and the weakness of the "academic mind," the social obligation of which it is not always sufficiently conscious, the meaning of America and the ways in which the colleges may contribute to the realization of her highest aims. Keenly conscious of the tendency of American practicality to degenerate into mere materialism, he makes every effort to avoid vagueness in the statement of realities that are necessarily intangible.

The pungent characterization—explicitly a caricature—of the "academic mind" is unfortunately too long to quote in full: "It is not to be expected that college professors will accept this account as true, but they may be grateful for it as a rough delineation of some of the characteristics of their colleagues." Yet, after all, the defects of the "academic mind" are adjudged to be merely those of its qualities. The real test of the college professor whether

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as an individual or as a class unit is his recognition of his "obligation to the social order" and the effect of this recognition on his life. He must grapple with the problems of the social order himself and he must teach American youth to grapple with them. Does he recognize or meet the obligation now? Rather, does he not too often ignore or disclaim it and leave his students to throw their real strength and energy into the "activities, which alone make college life vital and real?"

"The aim of American education is to produce a definite American social order, in relation to a definite world order." "Such an ideal will include the vocational ideal but will not be submerged by it." "If the American social order is to become the efficient motive of education, it is imperative that it be conceived as just as definite as it actually is." "America is not only, or even chiefly, a political order; it is a social order." It "stands for a distinct interpretation of what human persons are and what they may become....a distinct interpretation of social grouping; a distinct criterion for the justification and growth of the institution of economics; a distinct motive for literature and the arts; a distinct setting and service and hope for religion; and, most certainly, a distinct ideal of international and inter-racial rights and obligations."

What can the colleges do? "Our appeal must be to the academic mind itself." "Those who have already attained an imperative consciousness of their obligation to the social order must spread the contagion to those who have it not."

Such in brief outline is the doctrine of this essay. If it be easy to discover weak links in the outline, reference to the source should precede a verdict. Possibly the author is over-sanguine as to the openness of the more mature "academic mind" to conviction of its need of salvation thru serving others. Doubtless also there are many men of rare endowment for research who would lose more than they could ever gain by any effort to broaden their interests as a service to the social order. Such men render

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their greatest social service not in the college but in the graduate school. The best message of the book is to the junior college teachers, men whose minds are not yet completely academic, men who have not been repelled from the profession by the present stress of economic hardship, men who will eagerly welcome the inspiring vision of a worthy—even if remote—goal for their life work.

H. W. Tyler

Massachusetts Institute of Technology,
Cambridge, Mass.

College teaching—Edited by Paul Klapper. World Book Company. 1920. 583 p.

Too much of college teaching is aimless and without purpose. The old belief that one who knows his subject is also able to teach it is fast disappearing in our higher education, as it already has in our elementary and secondary schools. Realizing the need for a scientific basis for college instruction, Professor Klapper invited contributions upon this subject from some of the foremost college presidents and professors. He has incorporated these views in his book, *College teaching*. This book marks a new era in the collegiate world. President Butler well says in the introduction to the book: "A careful reading of these papers is commended not only to the great army of college teachers and college students, but to that still greater army of those who, whether as alumni or as parents or as citizens, are deeply concerned with the preservation of the influence and character of the American college for its effect upon our national standards of thought and action." The aim is to stimulate interest in the quality of college teaching, to initiate a scientific study of college pedagogy and to establish it on a true scientific basis. Realizing the tremendous scope of college curricula, the editor first considers the general methods of teaching that apply to almost all subjects and to most teaching situations. The discussion of the individual subjects he leaves to men "of undisputed scholarship" in their own fields.

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With the aid of these contributors, the editor formulated an outline, which was followed in the presentation of the methods of teaching the various subjects. This gives the book unity of purpose. Such questions as aim of the subject in the college curriculum, the place of the subject in the course, methods of teaching the subject, the mooted questions in teaching the subject, are considered. The methods of teaching the subjects are discussed under the usual divisions of the Sciences, the Social Sciences, the Languages and Literatures, the Arts, and the Vocational Subjects. Twenty-seven subjects are considered by experts in their respective fields. It is impossible to make reference to all the contributors, but some of the more prominent are: Arthur J. Todd on Sociology, Robert S. Woodworth on Psychology, Herman H. Horn on History of Education, Frederick E. Bolton on Educational Theory, T. W. Galloway on Biology, Ira Baker on Engineering, Talcott Williams on Journalism and Stephen P. Duggan on the History and Tendencies of the American College.

EGBERT M. TURNER

COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

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IX

NOTES AND NEWS

President Butler's annual report

For a generation President Butler has been recognized as an educational prophet. He has in the past often forecast changes in education and interpreted the educational situation considerably in advance of public opinion. In looking back upon his utterances in books, articles, and addresses, or running over the files of the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW during his editorship, it is remarkable to note how frequently he has anticipated and shaped the trend of affairs educational. His positions, for example, on admission to college, election of courses, honorary degrees, academic freedom, and political interference, seem to have met with general approval and acceptance. And his influence has not been confined to matters relating to higher learning or to education in this country alone. His views have been respected by all grades and types of American schools, and have affected the policies of educators thruout Europe. It is not surprizing, for this reason, that his chronicle of the notable achievements and undertakings of Columbia University, in the first part of his recent *Annual Report* should have attracted far less attention from the newspapers, journals, and leaders in various fields, than his sentiments in the latter part, which relate to some of the distortions and dangers of present-day education.

Columbia University at present has the largest attendance and the greatest endowment of all higher educational institutions in the world, and it has some of the handsomest and most commodious buildings and many of the most distinguished professors to be found anywhere. Every American should be proud that Columbia is now

"in a more satisfactory condition than ever before in its history. Teachers and organizers of research are accomplished and devoted. The administra-

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tive staff is efficient and untiring. The salaries of teachers and administrative officers, together with those of the clerical staff, engineers, janitors, and other helpers, have been notably increased. The immense student-body, thoroly representative of the whole country, is earnest and of high quality, notwithstanding its huge size. Some of the chief educational problems of the present day have either been solved or are so clearly understood as to be half way toward solution. No vexatious questions of discipline have presented themselves."

But such glowing, tho unspectacular, summaries in the President's Report, seem to have passed unnoticed, and attention has been focused upon the analytic and trenchant criticism of some unfortunate tendencies in education of the present, especially since the war.[1] This should not, however, lead to the conclusion, to which some critics have jumped, that American education is sadly decadent or that Dr. Butler has become a pessimist and indiscriminate censor. He has always been an educational reformer, and while, on the whole, there is abundant evidence of progress in education, there are, as there always have been, many phases of the process where improvement and even radical changes are imperative, and the educator who blinds himself to these abuses and faults is no true friend of education. At any rate, in an issue of the REVIEW devoted to college problems, as in Dr. Butler's report, we feel that such frank discussions are both appropriate and valuable.

Certainly President Butler is right in his insistence that the word "liberal" is being generally misused at the present time. Do we not regularly hear the advocate of free love, trial marriage, easy divorce, bolshevism, anarchy, and atheism referred to as a "liberal?" This is a most misleading and unfortunate usage, and Dr. Butler stands as a conservator of society at large, as well as of education, in holding that such terminology is at present leading to much unclear thinking, distorted vision, and vagaries in conduct. "The aim of the school, the college, and the university," he says, "has often been described as that of

[1] Since this editorial was written, the passages mentioned have been extracted and published by "one who wishes to remain anonymous, to cause them to be brought to the attention of public-spirited men and women thruout the country."

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making liberal-minded men and women; but surely this need not be interpreted to include freaks, oddities, revolutionaries, and those whose conduct carries them close to the border line, which, if crossed, would require them to be put in confinement in the interest of social welfare and social safety." In contrast to this, he gives us a constructive definition worthy of Milton or Huxley:

> "The truly liberal man or woman will be self-disciplined, and will aim to make knowledge the foundation of wisdom, to base conduct upon fixed character, and to maintain an even temper at difficult times."

Similarly, the cause and zeal of a revivalist are displayed in Dr. Butler's preachment against the existing tendency toward superficiality in education and our impatience with studying conditions in their historical perspective. In this likewise he is right. Evidences are all about us that many "demand that the history of human achievement be thrown away and the task be begun all over again on the basis of present-day dissatisfaction and distress." This, he properly declares is not real progressiveness, for:

> "The sure mark of the true progressive is his acceptance of human experience, his desire to understand and to interpret it, and his determination that it shall be made the foundation of something better, something happier, and something more just than anything which has gone before."

This deprecated "revolt against the influence of those who know" and "passionate cry of ignorance for power," are very real dangers. They are, however, largely symptomatic of the upheaval thru which we have been passing since the war, and spring from the same source as the vicious interpretation of "liberality." Another outcome of the demoralizing struggle has been the attempt in school and college to substitute for the "true business of education, which is to prepare youth to live," mere vocational efficiency or the ability "to make a living." It is a natural reaction to the indifference we had displayed before the war to industrial training and technical education, and is being felt as well by all other countries that were parties to the conflict. President Butler himself concedes: "We are doubtless passing thru a period of reaction in education, which will spend itself as periods of reaction have so often

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spent themselves before." And all this is preliminary to his description of the endeavors that his own institution is putting forth to administer an antidote and to meet the demand for a genuine liberality and a true appreciation of historic achievements thru the installation of a new course. He says:

"In Columbia College a definite and well-considered attempt is making to overcome these unfortunate conditions of modern education, and to build a wise, judicious, and truly educational program of study upon a sound foundation. This foundation is provided by the course entitled Introduction to Contemporary Civilization, prescribed for all members of the Freshman Class. The purpose of this course is to give the student early in his college residence a body of objective material upon which to base his own later and more advanced studies and his own judgments concerning the world in which he lives."

The new paganism

This *Annual Report* of President Butler affords a further diagnosis of untoward conditions in education and offers a variety of feasible solutions to meet them. Probably the most suggestive interpretation is that which he furnishes of the present "unrest, dissatisfaction, and disorder that prevail thruout the world." This upheaval, he holds, is not merely a product of the war, but has been growing in area and severity for the past two or three centuries, and is due to the increasing tendency of man "to measure the universe in terms of himself and present satisfactions." The remedy for this egocentric conception of the universe, and for the consequent social evils, is to be found thru a return to the broader viewpoint of religion. Dr. Butler maintains:

"There can be no cure for the world's ills and no abatement of the world's discontents until faith and the rule of everlasting principle are again restored and made supreme in the life of men and nations. This can not be done by exhortation or by preaching alone. It must be done also by teaching; careful, systematic, rational teaching, that will show in simple language which the uninstructed can understand what are the essentials of a permanent and lofty morality, of a stable and just social order, and of a secure and sublime religious faith. Here we come upon the whole great problem of national education, its successes and its disappointments, its achievements, and its problems yet unsolved."

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In this exposition is revealed President Butler's most fundamental viewpoint as an educator and religionist. It is one that has been developing thru the years of his public service and has frequently been expressed in addresses and books. It appears as early as his presidential address before the National Education Association at Denver more than a quarter of a century ago, and was most recently voiced in his eloquent discourse at the annual meeting of the Presbyterian General Assembly last spring. It marks the range of his knowledge of history and philosophy and the breadth of his social vision. Like the solutions he has offered elsewhere in this *Annual Report* and in those of other years, the interpretation has clarified the situation not only for Columbia, but for the rest of the educational world. This is surely the function of such a document, if it is to go beyond the mere enumeration of attendance, the accessions to the library, the lists of professors who have resigned, died, or been added, the account of new gifts, and the statement of the bonded indebtedness,—all of which are necessary in the yearly report, but contain little that is of constructive value for education as a whole.

Legalized profiteering

All institutions of higher education have been passing thru a critical period in finances. As a result of the disturbance of war times, educational authorities have generally been confronted with the necessity of doubling their endowments or of making every dollar do the work of two. The problem has proved insolvable in many cases, and, as we have shown in our recent Supplement, college and university presidents have everywhere been resigning in despair.

In the midst of this perplexing situation, the Teachers College of Columbia University has demonstrated its financial genius. Every item of expenditure over which the authorities had control has been kept well within the budget estimate. And while in the matter of wages, fuel, insurance, and printing, the College, like all other institutions, has been helpless, by the exercise of rigid

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economy and careful cost accounting, the deficit has been much smaller than could reasonably have been expected, and has been fully met by contributions.

Nevertheless, the income from endowment has been sufficient to meet only about two-thirds the cost of the upkeep of the plant. And with no appreciable increase in endowment, in order to meet the rising costs of maintenance and sustain the morale of the staff, who have been on inadequate salaries, it has been necessary, as elsewhere, to raise tuition fees. As the natural clientèle of this great teacher training institution is not a wealthy group, the cost of instruction, when added to the increased living expenses of the times, was likely to prove prohibitive to the students that Teachers College is especially designed to serve.

Radical steps to reduce the cost of lodging were promptly taken by Dean Russell. Almost two years ago he recommended to the Board of Trustees that dormitories be either built or bought. Shortly afterward the Bancroft, an apartment house on the next street north of the College, was purchased, and some six months later Janus Court, a couple of blocks east, was secured and renamed "Seth Low Hall." These buildings, together with Whittier Hall, which has long been owned by the College, now furnish rooms at reasonable rates for fourteen hundred students and yet have paid the College something better than six per cent on the investment.

In fact, by these simple transactions the burden lifted from prospective students seems almost incredible. The reduction in the price of rooms may be illustrated by a typical instance, which will give an idea of what the aggregate saving to students must be. A student living at the Seth Low Hall in an apartment whose lease has not yet expired, applied for space in a College controlled apartment, and showed that for a room corresponding to that for which the College was making a charge of $280 for the academic year she was paying for the same period of time $585.

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This is an example of how students thruout the country are being exploited, and legalized profiteering comes in. The rent law enacted during unsettled conditions by the State of New York to protect tenants, has enabled lessees to retain their apartments for two years, at first with only a twenty-five per cent increase over the pre-war rate, and more recently without even that increment. But nothing in the law prevents any amount of profiteering in sub-leasing, and, in consequence, while the lessee pays little or nothing more for his apartment than formerly, the rental of single rooms has risen to three or four times a reasonable charge, and students were everywhere being sharked until Teachers College took hold of the situation.

And these conditions are not peculiar to New York. It simply happens that Teachers College, and later, Columbia University itself, which has purchased four large apartment houses, in addition, have put forth unusually effective efforts to combat the profiteer. In many other places the educational authorities have not been as successful, and students in several university towns of the Middle West are actually paying more for living accommodations than those in the great metropolis. The overcrowding in university centers and the attempts at alleviatory laws have made the housing problem acute everywhere, and in some instances the degree of profiteering has far outstripped that of the New York landlady.

Hence, in many instances, laws designed to stop profiteering have greatly increased it. They have placed the burden upon those least able to bear it, and further penalized scholarship and education. Are there no legislators courageous enough to amend these laws or even make it a penal offense for such absentee landlords to ply their trade? The laws as they stand are clearly unconstitutional, and, while no educational institution could safely oppose this legislation publicly, because of the outburst of wrathful sentiment from the unenlightened, it should be repealed or adjusted in such a way as to apply to profiteers of all sorts and relieve education from the burden of these

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"old men (or women) of the sea." Until this is done, the American student of small means will suffer, and education and eventually society at large will be correspondingly injured.

Educational reform in France

The United States does not seem to be the only nation where the war has left a train of unhappy consequences upon education. In all the European countries, teachers are being driven out of the profession by inadequate pay, the most fitting students are being deterred from seeking secondary and higher training by the expense, and courses of study are running the gauntlet of criticism. A scathing article has recently appeared in L'Intransigeant from the pen of the brilliant Georges Huisman, which may be rendered as follows:

"The new Minister of Public Education is going to find himself in charge of a task, at once inspiring and tremendous. It is that of reorganizing the University of France,[1] which was turned topsy-turvy by the war, of assuring all the teaching body of material conditions worthy of their dignity and devotion, and of adapting to the life of the twentieth century antiquated courses of study, which, if they continue in force, are likely to stifle forever the thought-life of the French nation.

"The best among the youth of the University have fallen on the field of battle, where all fulfilled their obligation. If it was possible during the years of the war to provide instruction for the whole country, thanks to thousands of unknown sacrifices, one might hope that in 1921 the University would regain its pre-war character. But such is not the case, for, on returning to the student's desk or professor's chair, the soldiers of yesterday hesitate to remain at the University, which affords them a stipend that is ridiculously out of proportion to the general increase in living. An *agrégé*[2] teaching in a provincial lycée, who

[1] The "University of France" is a term that has been used from Napoleon's time to denote the various institutions in the system of public instruction—primary, secondary, and higher—taken as a whole. It should not be confused with a single university or institution of higher learning.

[2] An *agrégé*, in the secondary schools, is one who, having successfully passed the requisite tests, is ready to receive the title of "Professor" in a *lycée*

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must work for twenty or thirty years to obtain his admission, begins at 8,800 francs. Even one who is an *agrégé* of a *lycée* of Paris—a mandarin of the University—begins at 11,100 francs.

"The result is that all the university men, who feel themselves capable of being something besides teachers, are leaving the University for government positions, business, finance, or industry. One professor of letters has specialized in buying and selling old sets of teeth; another is the general secretary of a large bank; a professor of physics has made for himself a splendid position in the petrol industry. Since the University is no longer able to assure them of the material means of existence, its members, primary or secondary, leave it—not without sadness, for they enjoy teaching—but they are married men, heads of families; and they wish to live!

"Instead of entering the primary normal schools, instead of aspiring for a license (Master's degree), or for a title, the French youth turns deliberately toward more lucrative professions; and, since the competent directors of the Ministry of Public Education no longer know by what means they can retard this desertion from the primary and secondary ranks, they are forced to call teachers of insufficient professional worth to important chairs in the *lycées*, and are much disturbed because some teachers of merit leave to teach French (privately) to foreigners. If the new Ministry does not quickly bring about good order, the value of our instruction will have fallen many points in a few years, and our university propaganda outside of France will be reduced to nothing.

"This crisis in the teaching personnel is all the more serious, since it is equaled by a distressing crisis in the courses of study. We have primary instruction that is remarkable for its results, but it is given in schools that are often dirty and unsanitary. We have higher instruction where eminent scholars never cease to deplore the meager resources of their libraries, collections, and laboratories. Between these two there is secondary instruction, which,

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since it was turned upside down in 1902, has not been classical, scientific, or practical. The *lycées* and *collèges* turn out bachelors who, theoretically, are provided with encyclopedic knowledge, but who, in reality, lack in that general culture and practical education which are indispensable for the French youth of 1921. All these things call urgently for reform.

"Any one is lacking in sincerity who does not admit that all children without exception ought to be compelled to pass thru the same type of primary school: *l'école unique.*[3] It is this *école unique* that all the children of France, without distinction as to social class, should attend until receiving their primary school certificate. Having passed this first test, those among them who would engage in a manual occupation, prepare for agriculture, for commerce, or for industry, should enter the vocational school: *l'école professionelle*, which is open to all. This vocational school, a union of the higher primary and technical instruction, will have the splendid mission of preparing the youth of France for practical life.

"On the other hand, the pupils who are remarkable for their ability to grasp literary or scientific subjects should be admitted by examination to the *lycée*, which will give access to liberal careers in science and letters. We should not allow the *lycées* and the *collèges* to remain expensive—very expensive—and continue to be reserved for mediocre pupils, sons of the *nouveaux riches* or of officials, on whom scholarships have been conferred without any regard to ability. In a genuine democracy merit alone, and not money, ought to give access to the *lycées* and *collèges*. These secondary institutions ought to be reserved for children who are well endowed mentally, and inexorably closed to the mediocre. It is by this means, and not by any other, that we shall be able to save the intellectual future of the race, and that highly esteemed teachers shall prepare the youth of France that are worthy of their instruction, for duty, action, and thought.

[3] The common school.

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"In 1871, conquered France had for her motto: *Everything for Education;* for education alone was capable of regenerating the country. Will victorious France of 1921, by avoiding vital reforms, continue to allow her heritage of science, thought, and education to founder in the depths of indifference?"

Suspension of the Fisher Act

Educational movements in England, too, have become somewhat lethargic. The Education Act of Dr. Fisher has been suspended on the ground of its expense, and the feature of reconstruction resulting from the war of which Great Britain had reason to be most proud and which most clearly marked the progress made by democracy, has thus been abandoned to its foes. The same people, who in a magnificent burst of patriotism belittled the expenditure of hundreds of millions of pounds in Russia or Mesopotamia as a mere bagatelle, now stand aghast at the very idea of wasting nine millions upon education, and the Government has yielded to their clamors. *The Manchester Guardian* says of this collapse of the educational legislation of 1918:

"The interests which had fought it when it was still a Bill were not reconciled to it by the mere fact that it had become the law of the land. From October onwards protests against educational expenditure were made in the House of Commons, in the form of questions, by a band of members to whom the very idea of educating the children of common men and women seems in itself an extravagance. In December speakers at a conference of the Federation of British Industries—a body which from the start had opposed the establishment of universal continued education—denounced the Education Act in the name of economy. Finally the Select Committee on National Expenditure in its seventh report, recommended that 'those parts of the Education Act, 1918, which involve increased expenditure should be suspended.' Before the end of the year the Government, while the Minister of Education was still at Geneva, had given way. The Board withdrew the

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notice which it had given that section 8 of the Act, abolishing half-time and exemption from school attendance before 14, would come into operation on January 1, 1921, giving as its reason for the change of front that this section could not be enforced before the end of the war, and that it had just discovered, two and a half years after the Armistice, that the war was not yet ended. More important, it circularized all local education authorities, requesting them not 'to incur or commit themselves to incurring any new expenditure.'

"The result is that all schemes not already sanctioned by the Board—and those sanctioned can be counted on the fingers—are arrested. The London County Council, which wisely took time by the forelock, inaugurated its system of continuation schools for boys and girls from 14 to 16 last week. Elsewhere, however, this part of the Act, on which Mr. Fisher and other members of the Cabinet have repeatedly plumed themselves, can not be brought into operation until the Government's embargo is removed. Nor is this the worst. The suspension of the Education Act is ostensibly temporary. But no time limit has been fixed at the end of which this 'temporary' suspension is to end. The opponents of education have tasted blood and are not likely to be less exacting in the future. Only a strong and persistent demonstration that public opinion does not appreciate the 'economy' which takes the form of defrauding children of education will prevent the most important parts of the Act from being destroyed altogether."

Women at Oxford and Cambridge

But England is not altogether without its educational triumphs. Democratization seems to have made progress at least in the higher stages of education. Somewhat as a result of the war, women are rapidly rising to an equality with men in the old, as well as the new, universities. Oxford, the stronghold of conservatism has completely capitulated, and an urgent appeal for permanent endowment is now being

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made to the public thru a committee headed by the Archbishop of York. The five women's "colleges" at Oxford—St. Margaret Hall, Somerville College, St. Hugh's College, St. Hilda's Hall, and the Society of Oxford Home Students—have been established thru voluntary effort, and, except for a few scholarships and fellowships, have no real endowment, and, while their fees have been considerably raised, it is no longer possible to maintain them on a self-supporting basis. Since the war, Oxford and Cambridge are being confronted with the same danger that threatens the large American universities, of becoming institutions for the wealthy alone, with the consequent loss of intellectual standing and national character. It speaks well for English cultural ideals that this appeal in behalf of the women's colleges at Oxford, which from their poverty are in greater jeopardy than the men's, is meeting with a ready response from philanthropists and educators.

At Cambridge, on the other hand, it was proposed to create an independent women's university. The Syndicate was equally divided between two plans for securing women similar privileges with men. While Report A, which favored the admission of women to full membership of the University, was rejected by a close vote last December, and Report B, which proposed that the well-known women's colleges, Girton and Newnham, be incorporated into a university, with all the customary rights and privileges of such an institution, was recently even more decisively defeated, it marks an advance to have such radical proposals even considered. To use the orthodox British metaphor, the thin edge of the wedge has been inserted.

Our prospectus

With this number the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW completes its first year under the new editor. Since September each issue has largely been devoted to some single aspect of education that seemed to be a "burning question" at the time. Joint discussions by men of very different views have been offered on the unionization of teachers, salaries and school taxation, the

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Smith-Towner bill, academic freedom and democratization of university government, progressive education and experimental schools, educational surveys and measurements, training in Americanism, and college problems. It is our intention to round out this year of symposia with a discussion of the education of the workers, and vocational education and guidance.

Much more should be said upon all these topics, and a variety of other themes are worthy of a similar concentration of attention. Such subjects as continuation schools, adult education, centralization and local freedom in education, physical education, medical inspection, improvement of rural schools, agricultural and industrial training, teacher-training, better compensation and pensions for teachers, and progress in foreign education, together with a host of other topics, are worthy of immediate treatment in symposia. We are fearful, however, lest too many articles on the same line, even tho they be from different points of view, may prove wearisome and fail to provide the variety desired. We shall, therefore, next fall return to the former range of subjects in each number for which the REVIEW has been known in the past, unless our readers give some indication that they prefer at least an occasional symposium.

But we shall, in any event, continue our policy of entertaining every sincere proposal for the betterment of educational work, and will open our columns to the best representatives of each school of thought. No one will be denied the opportunity to express his views, no matter how far we disagree with him, if he has something to say and can say it effectively. At the same time, we shall reserve the right to declare our own views just as frankly in the editorial pages, even if we are quite out of harmony with some argument or sentiment expressed in an article of the same number. Further than this, we shall always be hospitable to suggestions for the improvement of the magazine and for the furtherance of educational progress. We welcome constructive criticism.

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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

MAY, 1921

I

THE ENTRANCE OF INDUSTRY INTO EDUCATION

The family, the church, and the state for centuries have shared in varying degree the responsibility of education. Now we are well launched in an era where a new factor, industry, takes up a portion of the load. Industry was nurtured in the family and it is natural that the strayed one should come back to share directly the burden of education. Perhaps it is not entirely repentance or even altruism that has stimulated this development, but there has always been enough of both in industry to give much hope for the future, if the development can be agreed to as educationally sound.

For many centuries educational emphasis appears to have concerned itself with liberal arts, theology, law, and medicine. But, as society became more complex thru the development of commerce by improved transportation facilities, and thru the development of manufacturing by the increasing demands of commerce and the arts, engineering education was gradually evolved. The evolution of the profession and practise of engineering proved particularly helpful in the expansion of the industries. This industrial development, in turn, demanded thinkers to be led by those trained in the professions for leadership, and hence arose vocational training of trade school and secondary character. Both industry and the workers early appreciated the need of education. The medieval guilds were educational pioneers of a sort. In this country an interest

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in the old-time apprentices was a form of this movement. The establishment of libraries, such as the Apprentices and Mercantile Libraries in Philadelphia, many decades ago, were probably at bottom efforts at education by industry. While the initial demand may not have come from the workers themselves, yet their clamors or their inspiration initiated, developed, or supported many early organizations for technical education, such as may be typified by the first foundation, the Cooper Union in New York City. Night schools of all grades were developed to handle fundamentals, but they, too, rapidly reflected the need of the workers and have been a silent factor for industrial good these many years. Now labor and industry, in an organized way, are taking a share of the burden of education, and it is not likely that the taste thus acquired will dull.

I

An early surge of the modern waves of industrial projection into education of a decade or two ago was that of apprentice courses. Many industrial corporations operate such, tho not always under the same name nor always with a similar constituency. The movement probably began unnoticed, in wide special efforts to feed the mechanical and business trades with intelligent apprentice timber. Later this successful method was applied to university and technical school graduates as a finishing course preparatory to professional engineering or managerial position. As a typical early case of this form of industry's entrance into education, the General Electric Company's apprentice courses will serve.

The apprentice courses of the General Electric Company were organized in 1901 to stimulate in the minds of boys a desire to become thoro mechanics. Some 774 boys, of whom 493 were machinists, completed this training in the first thirteen years. Classroom work, as well as shop practise, was eventually added. The courses were for machinists, pattern-makers, and blacksmiths. There were also a course in mathematics and a course for drafts-

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men and moulders. Five years later, there were introduced courses for student engineers, the registrants in which had graduated from colleges and universities. They were to continue their work on fundamentals, particularly "with the principles of the design, manufacture, testing, and installation of electrical machinery as can be obtained only at the plant of a large electrical corporation." The men now obtain practical experience on top of their technical school training. It is literally a post-graduate course. Within a decade of its inception some 3450 engineers pursued this graduate work with the company. Classes vary from 200 to 400 a year according to industrial conditions. They are given thoro training in the testing department at Schenectady, Pittsfield, and Lynn. There are two courses, the electrical and electro-mechanical, and upon the completion of one year's work in them, the men may at once enter the employ of the company, or may go on and enter the general engineering or commercial engineering courses. Upon finishing these latter courses, they may be transferred to company plants thruout the United States, or be recommended to railway, light, or power companies who ask the General Electric Company for trained men. All this work extends thru eleven months and has direct application to the various market demands for electrical products. A course exists also for office employees. In the apprentice courses, at the end of the work, the apprentice receives a diploma and a small monetary bonus.

Another case will serve to show even better how firmly rooted is the modern apprentice system of education. The educational activities of the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company are varied and rather extensive. They, too, have the apprentice method highly developed. Their direct activities consist of apprentice courses in the various trades and for engineering, sales, and other positions, and are offered thru the educational department of the company. The major indirect educational interest is the Westinghouse Technical Night School, which is also known as the Casino Technical Night School.

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There are one thousand students enrolled in this school; the men studying engineering preparatory and foreign department subjects, and the women commercial, calculating machine operation, sewing, and preparatory department subjects. The work of the apprentice courses is to train draftsmen, pattern-makers, foundrymen, machinists, toolmakers, electrical and junior engineers. The trade courses are four years in length; that of drafting is two years. They both require forty-eight hours work a week, with a minimum of four hours of classroom instruction. No texts are used in much of the work, all problems are taken from the experience of the apprentices in the various shop sections. The instruction in mechanical drawing includes blueprint reading, sketching, layout problems, and tool design. The instruction in shop problems includes problems in English, mechanics, shop system, costs, and the applications of the principles of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry to shop work. Two hours' home work are required each week in addition to classroom. Instructors in the Trades Apprentice School are selected from the engineering, drafting, and shop departments of the company. Because of their close contact with shop conditions, these men are particularly well qualified to develop in each apprentice a correct understanding of the work, and an appreciation of the relation between the various trades and industry as a whole. The apprentice receives pay at his regular rate for all time spent in class.

The company also asserts its belief in the technical graduate and states that the young engineer "trained in the engineering schools in analytical methods of thought, needs only contact with manufacturing methods, engineers, and men of business ability to enable him to step into a position of trust and responsibility." The experience of the company indicates that it can accomplish this by means of one specially arranged year of graduate work. Candidates for the graduate student course of the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company are selected upon the completion of their technical course at the uni-

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versity by a representative of the company after a searching interview, a thoro investigation of scholastic records, and a complete analysis of standings in the college community. Every effort is made to discover with the young engineer during his first few months the field of his greatest aptitude. To this end he is interviewed by representatives of the several departments. The training falls into three distinct stages. In the first, all men whether segregated for design, application, commercial, or works engineering, pass rapidly thru a number of shop manufacturing sections. They wear the garb of a workman and enter by the shop door. The mastering of details of construction of apparatus is the immediate thing in view. More important, however, is the contact that the young engineer gets with the shop man and shop methods, where the lesson of cooperation must be learned. The second phase of the work covers commercial and engineering testing on various types of machines. As construction is prominent in the first stage, the operating characteristics are featured in the test floor phase of the work. The third phase of the training is the highly specialized work with more direct bearing on the position ahead. Special schools, varying in length from thirty to ninety days, consummate the several courses. A thirty-day commercial school for salesmen includes in its curriculum a course in advertising, company sales policy, commercial law, business English, business letter writing, salesmanship, business ethics, and related subjects. For all this work special textbooks have been devised and the lecturers are the company's leading men in the particular phase of work they present.

At the conclusion of any course men automatically become members of the personnel of the department for which they have been trained. They have previously been made acquainted with the work of this department by their conferences with its older members and by the specialized training at the conclusion of the course. The spirit of cooperation on the part of the older men in the company

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with the younger engineers is a feature of the training period to the regular position. This training of technical graduates represents an investment on the part of the company. While in training the men are on a salary basis, but the amount earned is considerably less than the salary paid. There is no doubt but the product of the labor of the hands of these technical graduates could be increased until it would be in line with the salary paid if this were desired, but training is the main point in view. Men are kept on one job only long enough to have made that operation a part of their experience, and are then moved to a field of new experience.

II

Another type of apprenticeship training is that in practise at the plant of the Ford Motor Company. This also develops beginners or apprentices, from the adult foreign laborers as well as youths, but the underlying philosophy of the Ford system contains a different outlook. Mr. Ford holds that the manufacture of automobiles is for him merely a by-product. His real business is the making of men, and he makes automobiles to defray the expenses of his main pursuit. His Highland Park plant is more than a factory; it is a school. Any man can enter Ford's school, provided there is a vacancy. Married men are preferred to single men, and boys supporting mothers are given a chance before those with no dependents. The boy under twenty-two with no one to support is not eligible to profit-sharing. It would be cheaper to admit him than the other boy, but Mr. Ford prefers the latter at $5.00 a day to the former, because the money will meet the needs of more people.

It has been said that if Henry Ford had been given a technical training, he would have known better than to have attempted to do some of the things he has done successfully. We all remember the Jeremiads regarding the Ford profit-sharing plan and the dire results it was bound to bring,—the upsetting of the labor market and chaos in

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the industrial world, the enrichment of employees squandering their wealth to the detriment of the community and lasting injury to themselves, but nothing of the sort has happened. When Mr. Ford made known his intention to give the man who had made a mistake, a chance to come back, another howl arose. Undesirables would overrun the city. Crime would be unbounded, men would break jail in order to get into the Ford. This, too, did not happen, and both of these for the reason that, along with the profit-sharing plan, went a plan for the education of the workers, thereby necessitating sobriety, better housing and better living generally, a plan that protected them and everybody else.

The Ford school provides five compulsory courses. The course in industry and efficiency, the course in thrift and economy, the course in domestic relations, the course in community relations, and the course in industrial relations. The Ford English school is an important branch of the main school, and includes also arithmetic. This course is not exactly optional. A man who declines to take it is laid off for a couple of weeks, in order that he may have time to think it over. If he fails to assent, he is given the opportunity to find employment elsewhere. This school includes a professor of table manners, who teaches the art of eating without hurting the appetite of the other fellow.

The Ford idea crystallized is: (1) to improve a man's tastes and at the same time to increase his earning power; (2) to teach a man to use his income in a constructive manner; (3) to put a man into a right relation with his family; (4) to put a man into right relations with his community; (5) to put a man right with his work and his employer; (6) to fit the foreigner to become a citizen and to encourage him to do so; and (7) to give the man who is down and out a chance to come back. It avoids the error of preparing a man to have a taste for things that he is not prepared to obtain, and of increasing his capacity for happiness without helping him to the means of obtaining it. Ford increases the man's capacity while he increases

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his efficiency. At the same time he develops his earning power and his worth to society, so that he may have access to the things that he has been taught to enjoy. Each man is received on six months' probation to qualify for profit-sharing. A careful study is made of his habits, to be sure of his ability to make use of his profits and spend his money in a constructive way. There are but two ways of spending money; one builds up and the other destroys the man, his family and the community in which he lives. The Ford man must be a builder or he is trained to be so, and his profits are withheld until he is trained. Strong emphasis is placed on environment and the home. When efficiency declines, the home is investigated. Ford has made the far-reaching industrial discovery that the family is the basis of right economic and industrial conditions and that family quarrels directly affect the output of lathe and drill press. Besides the course in domestic relations, there is an equally efficient one in community relations. Industrial relations are also efficiently handled—the spirit is "to help the other fellow." Ford's idea is that the cure for crime is work in the open where men are made strong by confidence and the encouragement of their fellows, and his experience seems to demonstrate the truth of the theory.

The definite objective in the Ford idea of education, then, is a man who is right in his relation toward his employer, toward his family, and toward the community in which he lives. As the machinery of the shop is adapted to turn out the kind of automobile Mr. Ford desires, so his educational system is constructed with a view to obtaining the human product he has in mind. Mr. Ford's greatest desire in life is to make others happy. He has found incidentally that it pays commercially.

III

Another phase of the entrance of industry into education is found in the Industrial Institute of the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, of Akron, Ohio. This educational organization forms an integral part of the "Labor

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Division" established by the company to improve the safety, health, and welfare of its workers. It provides "a great variety of courses, under capable instructors, opening the way to advancement to all within the Goodyear organization and educating men and management in industrial and labor policies and problems." The purpose of the Industrial Institute is well indicated by the discussion included in the company's announcement: "The Goodyear School is organized to afford facilities, convenience, and encouragement to all members of the Goodyear organization and to improve their knowledge and efficiency, to make them of more value to themselves and to the Goodyear organization—and to the country of which they are citizens."

The Institute has an enrolment of 6,200 and a faculty of 117 members. The classrooms occupy three floors of a large factory building. The classes are in session from 7:00 A. M. to 11:00 P. M., with subjects ranging from "Americanization classes for aliens and grade school studies, to post-graduate technical courses." Class hours are arranged so that any man, no matter on what shift he is working, can take advantage of the school. There is no charge for instruction at the institute. The company states: "No matter how much previous education a man may have had, or how little, he will be able to find classes adapted to his needs." The work is divided into four schools—Americanization, Production, Commerce, and Household Arts. In addition to special classes for foremen and inspectors, members of the "flying squadrons," and apprentice boys from the mechanical departments, subjects such as business arithmetic, business English, economics, organization and management, modern business methods, business law and corporation finance, public speaking, mechanical drawing, mechanics, mathematics, electricity, rubber manufacture and practise, are taught.

Special emphasis is placed on the apprentice courses for machinists and draftsmen. Preference is given to sons of Goodyear employees. The boys enter at sixteen years,

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after completing the grammar grades and passing a physical examination. During the course of three years, each boy spends thirty-six hours a week in the shop, and during the course he masters every machine operation, and completely acquires the machinist trade. Five hours a week are given to school work, including mathematics, English, drawing, physics, and economics. Four hours a week are spent in physical training and one hour in a social club meeting. For this forty-six hour week, a beginner is paid at the rate of thirty-five cents an hour with a 2½ cent raise every six months. When an apprentice qualifies as an "industrian," he becomes eligible to the minimum six-dollar a day factory wage. The industrian must be at least eighteen years old and have been a part of the Goodyear organization for six months, and must be an American citizen. Admission to the apprentice course in draftsmanship comes after eighteen years of age, having a high school education or its equivalent, and the apprentice, upon entering the school, is on probation for the first three months. The course consists of thirty-six hours a week of drafting room practise, culminating in the third year with a thesis on machine design. Mathematics, English, and economics are important supplementary studies. There is also given machine-shop work, factory visits and study of the rubber products, and physical training. Apprentice draftsmen start at $75.00 a month, and, upon qualifying as industrians, are eligible to $135.00 minimum monthly salary. However, in the case of both machine-shop and drafting apprentices, the difference between the apprentice school wages and the minimum factory wage is withheld until completion of the course. This means that each boy graduating from these apprentice classes will receive from $1,500.00 to $2,000.00 in a lump sum. Upon graduation, a boy is given a position if he so desires, in the Goodyear organization, or he may go to the engineering or production squadrons of the production school, where he receives higher training for executive work.

The Goodyear scale of remuneration for apprentices

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and "industrians" is, of course, more recent than that of the other cases cited. While living conditions of Akron, such as rents, are notoriously expensive, yet it is significant that Goodyear has been able to pay a higher minimum wage than but a few years ago was widely pronounced unsound finance in the case of Ford's scale. The remuneration in other apprentice courses thruout the land is often on a much lower plane than at the Goodyear plants.

Regarding Americanization work, about five per cent of the Goodyear's Akron forces are non-English speaking aliens of forty-four nationalities, mainly Hungarians, with a liberal sprinkling of Greeks, Poles, and Italians. The Americanization division of the factory school systematically promotes class schedules to accommodate every alien in the plant. The alien can obtain this valuable instruction by giving to the school a few minutes of his time each day. The work among alien employees is devoted to (*a*) classes to teach foreigners to read, write, and speak, and thus to think in the English language; (*b*) the assisting of aliens to become naturalized and in the taking out of their second papers; and (*c*) the handling of all affairs related to foreign employees thru an interpreter, who speaks all the important languages. About three hundred men received this instruction for aliens during this last year, or twenty per cent of the fifteen hundred foreign employees based on the year's average employment.

This Industrial Institute is an important exemplification of the recent tendency towards the tying up of theory with actual factory practise. There is a growing realization of the reciprocal benefits to be gained when the factory is closely in touch with the school. Technical schools, notably the Engineering School of the University of Cincinnati, have sent their students for field work into the industries. Massachusetts Institute of Technology has recently adopted the plan abandoned by Cornell University, of being retained as consultant for the industries. The Goodyear plant, which makes school and factory a unit, carries this tendency a step further.

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IV

The cases discussed are typical of the kind of pioneering in education by industry that is going on. Of the many cases not possible to mention in an article of this sort, it should be said that most of them possess interest and many of them novelty. As an illustration of the ideas that are among us, might be mentioned the Workers' University of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. If industry is becoming a factor in education, why not labor? It is likely that the two could eventually supplement one another. The indications given of the aims and methods of this general industrial movement will speak much for accomplishment. It is giving an intelligent direction to the awakening of the workers. Some phases of the work have long been established and successful; others are experimental. All would agree that there is much of sanity and value in most of the proposals and to this extent certainly expected results should appear. The movement is spurred by a desire to help those who will be helped least in other ways. The future should, therefore, see an ever-expanding entrance of industry into education, and education is already remolding as a result.

We often ask what we shall do about our over-crowded universities. Some will close their doors after admitting a limited number. Others will manfully help a little, as they are able, all who come. Neither will succeed in meeting the need. That this advent of industry into education will furnish one relief to over-crowded colleges, especially technical schools, is unquestioned. It will give us more of that longed-for quiet and freedom from commercial phases in our universities, which damage some forms of scholarship. This flood of applicants for the advantage of education is no passing phase. It is merely a stage in the development of universal intelligence for which we have prayed and hoped for centuries.

James R. Withrow

Ohio State University,
Columbus, Ohio

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II

THE WORKERS AND EDUCATION

The editor of this journal has asked me to write on the subject of the workers and education. I consented, not with the intention of writing a formal thesis, such as the subject might forecast, but to express a thought or two that might be helpful to those studying educational problems professionally.

As I look back over my life, and reflect that my school training came in the brief years between six and ten with such information as I could acquire in London night schools before I came to the United States in 1863, I fancy some teachers may not consider me much of an authority on education. On the other hand, Henry Adams tells in the story of his education how he finished preparatory studies, graduated from Harvard, studied in European universities, and "his education had not yet begun." Education is not exclusively a school problem.

When I think of the education I got in the London streets, the training acquired in work in the shop, the discipline growing out of attempts to build an organization to accomplish definite results, of the rich cultural opportunities thru human contacts, I know that my educational opportunities have been very unusual.

Education runs along with the current of life. The goal of education may be expressed something like this—to make the individual conscious of his own resources, that he may be able to release and control the force that is his personality.

The above text does not mean that education of those who earn wages is a problem to be considered separately from the general field of education of other groups of citizens, but rather to get the complete scope of the whole from the point of view of those who work in industry. Educa-

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tion ought not to separate the individual from his fellows, his neighborhood, or his nation, but ought to enable him to contribute to life as it goes on around him, to give him the feeling of "belonging" that distinguishes the alien from the associate.

The school, or the period of formal education, seeks to give the individual the tools or the technique of finding and using himself. All too generally our schools have been organized on the wholesale basis with wholesale results. They have produced types, not individuals. Similar mechanistic methods prevail in shops or factories where the domination of machinery means the submergence and dwarfing of personality, killing the joy and purpose of life. This is all wrong, as we in the labor movement know, and to correct these conditions is one of the objectives of our movement. The labor movement stands for opportunity for natural development of the individual. It is not our function to work out the detailed plans to get that result, but we have an understanding of the fundamentals that must underlie any plan. Our experience has taught us that thru mutual associations we find opportunity to develop and utilize individuality. Association does not limit rights and opportunities for individuals, but establishes and assures them. Association develops responsibility. This experience of ours in life and work ought to find a place in the minds of those who direct school-education, if that education is to help students to more effective living.

The part of education upon which the labor movement can speak authoritatively and specifically is that which comes thru productive processes. Present day production has come under the mechanistic influences of the repetitive process and machine domination. Such influences do not lead to education. The management must devise methods that enable even those doing repetitive work to use their brains. Such production management becomes an educational force. It brings opportunity and new desire into daily work. Use of brains means skill—creative activity,

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better quality of work. Fortunately this result which from one point of view is altruistic, is also sound from the business point of view. Management which releases human creative force, has augmented the most important single factor in production. It brings the individual into the production purpose—gives him the feeling of "belonging."

The individual worker can not secure for himself this educational work opportunity. That can come only thru the understanding cooperation of management and the work group. The human side of production is only now being appreciated. Some of the institutions which are for the technical training of those who become managers in industry have included consideration of what is called "human engineering." Labor hopes that the day is not far distant when no technical man will assume responsibility of directing work who is ignorant of the problems of cooperation with the human beings who furnish the necessary labor power. Unfortunately, the great majority of the experts with whom we come in contact know only machines and physical forces—they do not know human beings.

Yet everything we do and have is ultimately for the service of humans. Service is the justification for existence. If educational institutions will help to establish this ultimate purpose as the directing control in every activity, it will open the way for immeasurable increase in the power of every individual.

SAMUEL GOMPERS

OFFICE OF THE
AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

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III

THE EVOLUTION OF WORKERS' EDUCATION

A national conference held in New York last month has established the Workers' Education Bureau of America. This Bureau aims "to coordinate and assist in every possible manner the educational work carried on by the organized workers." A report submitted at the conference showed "that there are now twenty-three workers' educational experiments in the United States, carried on in twenty-two cities. Most of the American experiments have been started in the past two years. Fifteen of the enterprises are under the auspices of central labor bodies, local unions, and international unions, eight under state federations of labor, and one each under the auspices of socialist and radical groups, universities, and the Women's Trade Union League. The total enrolment in labor schools reported to the conference, was 4670." In view of this present widespread movement for workers' education, it is natural to wish to know something of its history and aims.

The evolution of workers' education in the United States is well presented in three studies that have recently appeared.[1] In the decades just preceding the Civil War, labor was on fire with a new idea. This was universal free education. The common tendency to center history about great names, has obscured labor's part in creating the public school system. We have come to think only of such leaders as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard when tracing the origins of the free schools of to-day. But the success of these men depended in no small degree on the crusade of the wage earners for a "liberal system of education, attainable by all." Research has revealed this underlying force working for the establishment of the common school.

[1] Frank Tracy Carlton: *Organized labor in American history.* N. Y., D. Appleton & Co. 1920. Chap. 4. The free school and the wage earner.

Charles P. Sweeney: *Adult working-class education in Great Britain and America.* U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1920. Bulletin No. 271.

Arthur Gleason: *Workers' education; American and foreign experiments.* N. Y., Bureau of Industrial Research. 1921.

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The declaration of the preamble of the constitution of the Association of Workingmen, New Castle, Delaware, is selected as typical of labor's educational aims in those times. "Let us unite at the polls and give our votes to no candidate who is not pledged to support a rational system of education to be paid for out of the public funds." This was written in the year 1830. The gist of Carlton's studies is in this statement: "The concept of universal and free education as a powerful economic and social engine did not arise to a prominent place in social consciousness until the wage earner became an important factor in political life."

There has now arisen still another new idea in workers' education. This is the labor college controlled and maintained by the trade union. "This is the heart of workers' education—the class financed on trade union money, the teacher a comrade, the method discussion, the subject the social sciences, the aim an understanding of life and the remoulding of the scheme of things. Where that dream is absent, adult workers' education will fade away in the loneliness and rigor of the effort." The desire for a new labor education has risen out of a growing sense of power and responsibility. It also reflects a growing dissatisfaction with the public school. From the general public a protest has arisen against the stinginess of legislative grants, overcrowding of buildings, overworking of teachers and mechanical handling of children. The old-line trade unionism charges undemocratic control of schools. It strives to place its representatives on school boards and bring the teachers into labor unions. The new unionism is creating its own colleges.

These labor "schools of to-morrow" have for the first time been studied systematically and in detail by Charles P. Sweeney and by Arthur Gleason. Working independently, the two writers have made practically the same statements of aims and methods. The objects are (1) the intensive training of a few men and women for leadership in trade unions; (2) instruction that will "give the more eager of the rank and file a social and civic education;" and (3) mass

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education, or "semi-entertainment with a cultural slant." This last objective seeks to attain unity in labor organizations thru a common emotional or aesthetic experience. "Methods in workers' education depend on objects. If the object is to train leaders and to give the ambitious minority of the rank and file an intensive education, then the method will be that of the small class and hard work." In trying to reach the rank and file with no conscious desire for education, three-quarters of the time and effort will be spent on entertainment. The other quarter will be devoted to giving some information.

In broad outline, this is the history of the movement. Labor colleges in the United States follow more than a decade behind those in Great Britain. The Workers' Educational Association was founded in England in 1903. It is manned by instructors from the universities; supported financially by the universities, labor groups and educational authorities; and is attended and in part controlled by the workers. The W. E. A. is the largest of the British ventures, having in 1918, 219 branches, 2,526 affiliated bodies (trade unions, cooperative associations, and university groups), and 17,136 individual members. The most significant contribution of the W. E. A. has been the tutorial class based on a systematic three-years course of study.

Ruskin college was founded at Oxford in 1899 by three Americans, Mr. and Mrs. Vrooman and Charles A. Beard. The last named has been one of the staunchest friends of workers' education in the United States. These two pioneer experiments of the W. E. A. and Ruskin College were followed in 1909 by what is now the "Labour College," London. It arose as a protest against the university domination of its predecessors. The new venture is backed by the South Wales Federation of Miners and the National Union of Railwaymen, which are two of the most powerful and forward-looking of the British unions. The Labour College is Marxian in economics, and its aim is to reach the local leadership thruout the country and give to this strategically placed labor group the best possible training.

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The workers' colleges in the United States tend to follow the line of development of Britain's latest experiment. The courses given in this country are conducted largely by university men, but financed and controlled by the trade unions. The pioneers in workers' education in America were in the clothing trade unions of New York City. J. M. Budish and George Soule have devoted a chapter of their *New Unionism in the Clothing Industry* to the story of the founding of the work. That the start should be made by these organizations was natural, because of the progressive nature of the groups and the thirst for knowledge of the Russian Jewish workers, who comprise a majority of the membership. The International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union appropriated $1,500 for educational activities in 1914. Local 25 under the leadership of Miss Juliet Poyntz, launched the undertaking. The United Labor Education Committee was formed in 1918. Its chief backing came from the needle trades, the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America being the largest of some twenty affiliated unions. The Amalgamated has lately established its own work independent of that of the Committee. From New York City the educational activities spread to other clothing centers, including Rochester, Cleveland, Philadelphia, Boston and Chicago. Labor education, maintained by unions consisting mostly of American workers, was started by the Trade Union College of Boston in 1919. It has been followed by classes conducted under the auspices of the Chicago Federation of Labor and the Women's Trade Union League. Washington and Seattle each have a college. The Department of Education of the Pennsylvania State Federation of Labor has a string of classes in Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Harrisburg, and nearby towns.

The bulletin on working class education by Charles P. Sweeney affords all available information on the labor colleges. It is accurate, and has been carefully digested, well arranged, and presented in readable form. Arthur Gleason's booklet is based on a study of printed material, interviews and correspondence. It was written in response

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to a call for help in establishing new trade union classes. It contains a survey of the field, with aims and methods of work. In addition, it faces the practical problems met in running a labor college. There is a discussion of teachers, textbooks, finances, and meeting places. The style is direct and exhilarating.

No history has yet been written of the numerous experiments with workers' education for children. There are such colony schools as that of the Ferrer Modern School at Stelton, Mrs. Johnson's school in the single tax colony of Fairhope, and the Brookwood School near Katonah, N. Y. The last named has lately become the New Brookwood and is going to devote itself to training labor leadership. There are the Socialist Sunday Schools and the classes of the Young Peoples' Socialist League. There are the adventures that centered about exceptional teachers, such as Hutchinson's school at Stony Ford, Bernard Sexton's "Little School in the Woods," William Thurston Brown's "Walt Whitman School" in Los Angeles, and Prince Hopkin's "Boyland." All these are animated to a more or less degree by the spirit of the experimental schools described by John and Evelyn Dewey in their *Schools of To-morrow*. They were, or are, attended by children of working class parents and are at least in part supported by them.

The labor movement before the Civil War placed its faith in a state financed and state administered school system. The labor movement of the present tends to place its faith in schools supported and administered by the trade unions. Yesterday the work for children received major consideration. To-day the demand for a trained labor leadership dominates workers' education.

Frank V. Anderson

Bureau of Industrial Research,
New York

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IV

HELPING WORKERS TO THINK

Workers' education should appeal hardly more to laborers than to those who consider themselves hostile to labor's purposes. That workers are coming into a larger share of social control no longer needs to be argued; those who look with least sympathy upon popular designs should be most anxious for plans to be formulated with intelligence and to possess the balance that comes only with knowledge. "I can see no better answer to those who constantly say that the leaders of trade unions...are uneducated and unable to grapple with the big problems in which they have shown themselves interested," declared Mr. Carmichael, in urging the University Amendment Act in New South Wales in 1913, "than to say we will give these men the opportunity to attend university tutorial classes so as to get into touch with those higher studies which can not but be of advantage to them."

In England, Belgium, Germany, Australasia, Canada and the most important industrial centers of the United States, the message of workers' education is making its increasing appeal. The results of these experiments, rich in suggestion, can not even be directly summarized here. I am anxious to add to information on the subject by setting down a plain narrative of one of these adventures, that in Baltimore, and it is true that most of the observations to be made reflect analogies with experience developed in less limited undertakings elsewhere.

The first important experiment in Baltimore was the Community School, which grew out of informal Americanization classes for foreigners attending a Community Church fostered by a progressive Episcopal clergyman. Rooms in the same building were rented, expenses being cared for by voluntary contributions, most of them in

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small amounts. Weekly classes were organized in current events, public speaking, psychoanalysis, literature of the peoples at war, and local social problems; there was a class in dramatic art which presented plays at the Community Church. Besides the two ministers, instructors comprised a postgraduate student, a woman interested in the labor movement, and the head of a private school. The whole project was marked by a delightful informality and cordiality. If there was any "control" of the institution, it was in the hands of the instructors, who met weekly at luncheon to talk over their problems. The school ran only for fifteen months, but the seed was sown. After the building was torn down and the school suspended, the desire for workers' education remained constant in the minds of a few who had experience in a succession of ventures toward this end.

A little group set themselves resolutely to planning for a more comprehensive project, that of a Labor College, intending to claim the allegiance of the two great organized labor elements in the city, the members of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and the American Federation of Labor. But the Federation, conservative and believing in craft unionism, has been unwilling to cooperate with the Amalgamated, conspicuously foreign in personnel, radical, and organized on industrial lines. Difficulty was experienced in securing a place of meeting, but finally rooms were secured in one of the downtown buildings of the University. This seemed to be not only a happy solution to the instant problem, but an assistance to the theory of the Labor College. In workers' educational movements, two opposed concepts have come forward. The last to develop, represented conspicuously in England by the Labor College and in America by the Seattle Workers' College, alleges that alliance with the ordinary educational institutions is worse than useless, since these are imbued with capitalistic thinking, and seek to equip efficient individuals rather than men and women who will reason in terms of society as a whole. The other faith, which speaks in Ruskin

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College and the Workers' Educational Association in England, and prominently in the Amherst College classes for workers in this country, wishes cooperation between universities and labor classes in the belief that workers will benefit by scholarship thus made available, and scholars will catch a new spirit thru association with the labor movement. If open avowal on either side is difficult at the outset, the end may be accomplished by choosing instructors from those members of the universities who are sympathetic toward labor. Official delegation of instructors by the University had been asked of the institution some months before, when the Labor College was first proposed; professors appointed on a committee to consider this application showed themselves in the main skeptical of the seriousness of the workers, and ignorant of the chance that was being offered to follow in the example of English schools of higher learning. Nevertheless, well equipped persons in the general community,on no definite promise of compensation, volunteered their services as teachers in more than sufficient number. From a list of eleven, four—a labor manager, previously a teacher; an expert in the research department of a clothing firm, the minister who had organized the Community School, and a university instructor—were asked to conduct weekly classes in public speaking, elementary English, current events and political economy respectively. Class meetings occurred on Thursday, Friday and Saturday evenings from 8 to 10 o'clock.

The next problem was that of enrolment of students. The spasmodic history of labor education in Baltimore and the want of interest on the part of the Federation were partially accountable for the relative disappointment in this most important particular. But, aside from local causes, there is a general apathy of workers toward education. With the exception of a few awakened spirits, you have not only to unbolt the door to them, but, persistently and one by one, lead them thru it. This difficulty of enlisting students has everywhere forced itself to the

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front. The usual appeal of education, that it will assist one to rise in station, does not hold in addressing workers. Workers' education does not intend to be a ladder for the individual to position in the middle classes. Mass instruction, which is really entertainment with an intellectual flavor—the only sort drawing large numbers—serves small constructive purpose, aside from perhaps inducing a few to undertake serious study later. The effective work is done in two types of classes, the one fitting labor officials and the other answering to the demand for a share in the culture of the community. Neither of these designs serves a bread-and-butter ambition, and neither attracts numbers. Mr. Gleason, arguing particularly from American experience of the small numbers catching the message, remarks that the teacher "will avoid mass meetings, advertising what he is going to do. The little class seems lonesome after a mass meeting....He will begin his experiment small in one place. If successful, it will do much of its own advertising and publicity work." In Baltimore, presentation of the plan to the body of unionists ended in little classes of approximately ten each. This, or nearly this, is the case the country over. Yet I do not mean that after long and tactful effort success will not come. I can share the belief of Mr. Mansbridge that any meeting of workers can, if rightly approached, yield a class of earnest students. To accomplish trade union achievements, understanding leaders have had to meet their fellow workers almost the whole distance. Said one of our students, drawing this analogy: "We had a hard time persuading the people in our tailoring shop that they needed an hour and not half an hour for dinner. We almost had to take the coats out of their hands. Now none of them can see how they did with half an hour." The English movement has discovered individuals who are naturally scholars; a workman had for years been studying the philosophy of the schoolmen, but had never found anyone else who was interested in the subject, and another was an amateur biologist.

Workers have told me of their intellectual arousals, and

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of their pathetically lonely efforts to satisfy their cravings. Many try to study alone and, not knowing how, have let their purpose lapse. Said a middle-aged man: "I ain't got the patience to learn. I tried to—bought a dictionary and a grammar—but it ain't any use my coming to your class." And he went on to the meeting of the pants-pressers' local upstairs. The latent desire in these will be aroused first, and others seeing the process of education in operation will be drawn to participate in it; classes grow, we have found, less by advertisement than by personal contacts. In our experience a class will number from ten to fifteen or eighteen students; during the whole course there will be visitors from time to time, only a few of whom come to more than one or two meetings. The group will boil itself down to a little company of faithful attendants who are not deterred by bad weather and seem never to want a holiday.

The fact that we have not been taken up by the regular education authorities has been a real help, for this has rendered the project informal, friendly, and has never let the object of teacher and students be lost in conventional classroom practises. Enthusiasm has stood for money and equipment; purpose has supplied pedagogy. Our students ranged in age from sixteen to sixty, being equally divided between men and women. As the situation of the adult worker seeking education is unique, so the problem of the teacher is peculiar. Most of our men and women had left school, whether in this country or abroad, with certainly no more than the grammar grades completed. The great gap in conventional knowledge had been filled by insistent industrial experience, aided in the more conservative by trade union philosophy and in the more radical by socialist thinking. Without trade unions and socialism, workers' education would be a far more difficult task. Unions have given the people a better standard of living, appreciation of the necessity of organization, and tolerance of view; socialism has induced eager reading and implanted a vision of the possibilities

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of social development. In teaching the class in the history of the labor movement, I found this equipment gave the students a better basis for progress than the usual college preparation imparts to the undergraduate. Besides, they had an experience of life, and, judging of the world from underneath, they had more charity for its injustices, more patience for its foibles than many a man who has successfully strutted on the top. In this strange blending of sophistication and ignorance, they seemed like graver children, or quite naïve philosophers. But more than anything else, they were distinguished from a college class in their intense interest in the subject. They did not have to be spurred, but rather checked in their ardor. It is their maturity, the fact that, however unsatisfactory, they have made an adjustment with life, which requires that the method of teaching them shall be wholly different from that pursued with ordinary students possessing no more book knowledge. They will not sit before an oracle. The class must be informed with a spirit of democracy—not studied, but intuitive. Mr. Mansbridge struck the sovereign note in saying that "the principle which gave most life and vigor to the classes was that each student was held to be a teacher and each teacher held to be a student. A tutorial class . . . consisted of thirty-one teachers and thirty-one students." Anyone who tries to instruct workers and thinks that he is going to give more than he gets, is mistaken. This will come out especially in the discussion, which is an established principle in workers' education. Once experienced, it is never omitted again. A slight timidity in the beginning rapidly changes to spirited participation. The teacher does best to become simply the moderator between the students, guiding rather than forcing the argument. Tho often passionate, the discussion never becomes lacking in courtesy.

This of the students. The right sort of teacher is more than half the battle. He must possess at once the power of mental detachment and of wholehearted spiritual intimacy. Says an American observer: "The type is neither

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the smart brisk young tutor who patronizes nor the bearded professor who is dogmatic. The type is that of humble-minded scholarship set in charming democratic personality. . . . .The balanced qualities which give clear exposition and suffer heckling gladly and call out group discussion, can only be revealed in practise." If he seeks to be merely scrupulously tactful, he will fail. He can not guard himself from multifold slips, however studied his effort. He must convince his students that he loves them and respects them, and then they will overlook his unconscious errors in taste. Must the workers' teacher be a special pleader? No, at the bottom they do not wish this. They are quite willing to decide things for themselves, if only they are given the basis of judgment. "What we want," one of them told me in a homeward conversation, "is the truth." The most practised learning does not aspire to more. Two qualities the workers demand in their instructor, and, their attendance at classes being voluntary in the last degree, they will not put up with less—scholarship and honesty. They will listen more readily to hostile sincerity than to shallow approval. They will welcome the teacher who, with loyalty to truth, believes that the world must be fashioned to the benefit of the mass of the people.

At the present stage of development of labor education in America, teachers and students share a physical disability which is serious. For both the work is "overtime." Many come long distances after long hours of labor. One woman can only reach my class, after transversing the length of the city, in time to be present during the last half hour, and yet she attends regularly. At the fag end of the teacher's day or week, physical fatigue makes thought processes awkward and uncertain when they need to be alert and poised. Mental inhibitions, most of all, tend to be broken down, and he finds himself becoming impassioned when he ought to be simply positive, and casual in sentiments for which, as a matter of fact, he cares very much. Generally speaking, one finds two types of thought in a class of workers, the same types, indeed, as are present

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in any liberal group, namely, the wish for gradual reform, and the faith in catastrophic change. The radicals are likely to be well read in Marxist and other socialist literature, and have economic terminology on the tips of their tongues. Some of these will be egregiously doctrinaire. In meeting their views the teacher will find that he speedily reaches the intellectual quick, and so must proceed not rudely, but persuasively. Straightening a distorted mental structure is like orthopedics; it must be undertaken by patient pressure, or else bones will snap. Again, as the movement gets better established, it will be "slowly learned that working class education costs in money and time; especially, that it must pay its way in point of adequate compensation for teachers. It is idle to hope that a permanent teaching staff of the right calibre can be built on the tag ends of busy people's time, for which a nominal fee is paid." England is rapidly coming to this, and American experiments must also, yet, let us hope, with the minimum of stagnating convention, and the maximum of continuing enthusiasm.

But to return to my chronology. With the coming of summer, classes in the Labor College ceased. It had become more and more evident that the real support for the project was among members of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, and so in making plans during the vacation, unions connected with the Federation were not much counted upon for the commencement of work again in the fall. The University now had need of the classrooms used by the Labor College, and after some futile efforts to secure a public school building and some brief experimentation with rented quarters in the more favored section of the city, the College was moved to the Progressive Labor Lyceum of the Amalgamated. This was felt to be a step in advance, for the Lyceum was located nearer the homes of the workers and was the familiar meeting place of their locals and social organizations. Tho sponsored by the Amalgamated, Federation members in several instances have joined the class and are among its best stu-

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dents. It now seems possible that Federation unions which are most disaffected from the central body may make additions to the group, and that the cooperative movement, new and headed by vigorous younger men in Baltimore, will lend its aid.

Universal experience has been that the social sciences, particularly at the outset of a venture, constitute the most useful and popular studies, and our history in Baltimore has borne out this rule to the fullest. The central stimulus prompting workers to education is a curiosity to understand the economic compulsions and possibilities which lie about them; these are the facts of their daily lives, and they know that reasoning about them has, for the labor movement, a utilitarian purpose. The present class in current events is really a random course in principles of history, government and political economy as these reveal themselves in concrete happenings. The class is always interested in learning the literary biography and philosophical background of a manifesto, supreme court decision or diplomatic note. Beginning with economics as a basis, labor classes will gradually undertake serious study in other topics—psychology, biology, literature, ethics. England, her movement being older, has naturally gone farther in this broadening of the curriculum than has America. It must be years here before anything like a well-rounded education, suggesting the essential unity of knowledge, can be offered. We have not come to the point of writing weekly essays, as in England, nor has there been a class library. Members of the class have bought books which were passed around and well read; several have subscribed to periodicals. If written work and the provision of books were undertaken, we would appoint a class secretary; such an official was found valuable in the Community School in seeing to collections and attendance.

How has the general community, it may be asked, received the plan of workers' education? There is little knowledge of the project. The newspapers gave purely objective notices of the Labor College. An editor of a

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manufacturers' journal which speaks from the narrowest capitalist standpoint, wrote alarmed letters to one of the instructors, and on invitation, visited two of the classes, afterwards asking questions which showed that, whether or no, he was bound to find "Bolshevism" in the scheme. Unable to make any direct charges, he contented himself with unwarranted insinuations in his columns against the undertaking.

Such, in outline, is our story to date. I may end by referring to the circumstance which fully aroused my own interest and suggested this narrative. After the class one evening I was talking with the woman who has been the chief mover in these several undertakings, and was dwelling on our perplexities, particularly the small number of students we had been able to attract. She knew the difficulty but still had full faith in the people, their ability to profit, and their final wish to be shown the way to freedom. In the hard light of a street lamp her face showed all the marks of her hindrance and her talent too. "We must keep at it," she declared, "because, after all, what is most needed is to teach workers to think." No one who has heard this appeal and understood it, can ever forget or fail to respond to it as best he knows how.

BROADUS MITCHELL

THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
BALTIMORE, MARYLAND

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V

SHOULD THE SCHOOLS TEACH LABOR PROBLEMS?

Great teachers thruout history have held before their students the desire for progress, an ideal without which life becomes an inane routine. The rank and file of modern teachers, however, thru some neglect or fault in our present methods, fail to hold clearly before our children this necessary ideal. Moreover, in that field of human activity which is changing most rapidly and is perhaps most complex of all, namely, the world of occupations, practically nothing is being done to furnish children with any ability to bring about changes in desirable directions.

This lack can not be because work is an unimportant human activity; it consumes one-half the waking time of ordinary individuals, and if work problems are not well solved, they rapidly tend to disintegrate the civic, recreational, moral, and home life of the worker. Labor problems press the farmer into politics, they send him to Washington with the complaint that his bumper crops are his undoing. They forced the Republican and Democratic parties to give over one-half of the space in their platforms to questions relating to occupations. Occupational questions intrude themselves into the symphony orchestra, the church, and the theaters, and they appear at the breakfast table and in the living-room conversation.

What have we, as teachers, to say to the charge that, if we turn from the seething mass of industrial problems to see what the schools are doing to prepare children either to understand their present environment or to undertake the solution of their future problems, we find nothing as an answer to our seeking? Some months ago an American creed was constructed under a nation-wide competition. The creed that was judged best by leading American citizens has not one word regarding the future,—nothing

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except a perpetuation of the *status quo*. The creed speaks of "just powers" as "derived from the consent of the governed," "a perfect union," "freedom, equality, justice, and humanity for which American patriots sacrificed their lives and fortunes;" it does not tell of sacrifices which all of us are called upon to make—the giving up of self-seeking and complacency. The creed ends with the sentence, "I therefore believe it is my duty to my country to love it; to support its constitution; to obey its laws; to respect its flag; and to defend it against all enemies." It will be seen that absolutely no work of a constructive character is called for. The children in our schools recite a salute to the flag, a more or less euphonious glorification of things as they are, ending with the expression, "Liberty and justice for all." Could you be understood if you should enter the schoolroom and say to the children, "Did you say 'Liberty and justice for *all*?' What about the large number of people who believe that justice is not yet accomplished? Is your salute to the flag a declaration of things as they really exist, or a hope and prayer for the future? And if it is the latter, what are you going to do to prove your prayer true?" What shall we as American citizen-teachers say to the challenge that the schools are not preparing for anything except the perpetuation of a struggle in the dark—a struggle daily growing more serious?

If we turn to the studies of the curriculum, it is safe to say that there is nothing in the ordinary teaching of any subject in the program of the elementary school which bears upon the ideal of progress. Civics, no doubt, comes nearest meeting the need, but it is everywhere taught as a description of processes, and, if treated historically, leads the thought of the children up to the present as the high-water mark of civilization. Can any one name a subject devoted to fitting children for the social responsibilities soon to be theirs in the commercial and industrial world? The present curriculum is a blunderbuss. It hits everything in general, nothing in particular, and certainly few things more than ten feet away from the child as he is in

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the artificial environment of the school. It is a sign of the times that even recently issued textbooks on civics fail to present this ideal of development, improvement, progress. Turn to the index references on the subject of taxation and what do you find? Scarcely one hint of tax reform: the present methods therein carefully expounded are the last word on the art of raising money for our cooperative purposes and activities. Surely, if any topic should be treated as a subject about which we know very little and need to recognize our present faults, it is this subject of taxation.

Here let Dr. F. E. Spaulding speak. In an address at Cleveland, July 6, 1920, he said:

> "There is great need for teachers better prepared to meet the new problems that are bound to be put upon the schools. I refer to civics and to problems of relationships in industry—to problems of capital and labor and of social relations. The pupils meet all these vital questions at once as they get out of school. But we are shunning these questions in the schools. We say they are 'dangerous.' We should be prepared to consider these problems in our teaching. That doesn't mean that the schools should set up a one-sided scheme of thought. It means that the problems should be presented together with the conditions out of which they grow and that the pupils be trained to use their best thought in solving them."

But Dr. Spaulding is answered in a recently prepared tentative course of study for civics for the sixth grade, in which a timid member of the committee says, "It is possible, however, to show in a general way how the practise of the basic virtues already studied when applied to .....industrial relationships, really makes for harmonious group action; and thus to avoid the danger of entering too deeply into the discussion of labor problems." Is it not obvious that, if teachers feel the danger of entering too deeply into the discussion of labor questions, we had better do all we can to arouse them to their duty to their communities and to the future citizens of America? A letter from a teacher of a class in occupations in one of the Los Angeles junior high schools well states the need as revealed by the attempt of this city to teach about the problems of the occupational world. He says:

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"Each junior high school presents its own problems. For instance, in one school the teacher seems to be able to reach the pupils only thru the money-making incentive. In my classes, however, not one boy earns money or carries papers. They are headed for the professions and their fathers' offices. They consider unions anathema, Bolshevik, etc. I have had to show the contrast between former and present labor conditions and create a sympathetic understanding for labor men, showing their value and rights and the unfairness of capital in many ways. The teachers in other schools say they have to show the value of capital, experts, supervision, and financial skill to pupils who think all employers oppressors of labor. This instruction alone, if nothing else, will be of immense social value in the future solution of industrial questions."

Yet in that same city the principal of a junior high school told the teacher of occupations that she had better keep off the subject of labor unions in Los Angeles. For himself, he was willing to teach all of the "harmless things" and send boys and girls out to settle their differences of opinion on the basis of ignorance and in the white heat of struggles between labor and capital. Shall we behave as ostriches are said to behave while we continue pretending to be teachers? Or shall we recognize that the safety of the government itself depends upon the study of this problem, and, acting as compact units thru our teachers' organizations, with mutual understanding thruout the length and breadth of the country, demand the right to discuss these questions with young people in the schools? Industrial leaders and representatives of capital are fully active in the adventure of changing government to suit their interests. Shall we allow the children of 1921, with the dense ignorance of industrial problems in which the schools keep them, to enter upon the work of solving these problems in 1930 and 1940?

Things now going forward in the world show what we are likely to experience unless there is a widespread study of these questions. In England a minority party organized both as a political party and as a group of trade unionists formed a council of action and told the legally constituted government that it should not exercise the functions of government to the extent of declaring war against Russia without suffering the penalty of a national tie-up brought about by a general strike. In Italy the metal workers

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seized the factories, thus taking the step long advocated by Emma Goldman, and attempted to run them without the permission of the owners. They were half a million strong, and the government did nothing. The attempt led to a sudden and fortunate education of the workers, and they shortly repealed their action and withdrew after securing the promise of a cooperative plan of management far in advance of the Whitley plan in England, and perhaps too far in advance to be successful, on account of the state of education in Italy. In Italy, also, one hundred landed estates have been seized by agricultural workers. In our country, as in all countries, if the workers are to remain in ignorance, they will strike beyond all reason and make demands based upon lack of information alone. Recent events indicate that the world's workers are likely to demand democratic control, whether they are ready for it or not. To the mind of a candid observer the only possible avoidance of disastrous experiments or continued conflicts in this country is the education of the masses of our people in industrial questions.

What is accomplished by education? Let me give an instance, which shows clearly what men can be expected to do when their interests are enlisted. The Philadelphia traction workers, having for ten years carried on their splendid system of cooperative management whereby increase of wages was based solely on savings resulting from more efficient operation, voted recently to postpone a further increase of wages, and, if necessary, to lend the traction company one million dollars of their own personal savings. The American Federation of Labor recently endorsed the Plumb plan for the railroads, a scheme resembling that of the traction workers in Philadelphia.

More than forty years ago the English economist, Jevons, well said: "If people do not understand a true political economy, they will make a false one of their own." And what has happened since his time? Large scale production, giant corporations, massed workers, machine work, with automatic processes, assembling, and machine tending,

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have changed the methods of work, created the labor problems of to-day, and raised questions infinitely more difficult than those of the time of Jevons or Adam Smith. At the battle of Salamis the Persians were brought to confusion because the oars of their galleys became entangled. Is it any wonder that we are brought to confusion, mutual distrust, and quarreling thru the entanglement of the forces of modern life? Meanwhile we go on teaching the exact list of cities famous for shoes, without teaching about the industrial forces and human problems involved in the making of shoes. We teach how Congress passes laws, but not how corporations and labor unions influence legislation. We teach the number of bones in the body and the topography of the digestive system, but not about the words that come out of the mouth in labor disputes. We teach about the volcanoes of South America, but not about the volcanoes of factory towns. Even such things as high school economics are still taught as if the laws of supply and demand were like the laws of the weather, which one studies objectively, without the slightest idea of cooperative action to influence these laws. Is there any one who supposes that the so-called "regular" curriculum of the elementary school will help children to understand their future environment? Can any amount of careful upbringing in the home, Sunday school teaching, analysis of sentences, learning of geography, appreciation of literature, growth and efficiency in reading, writing, arithmetic, and spelling, take the place of a thoro and candid discussion of these problems in the school?

To the question,—Can teachers successfully do the work involved in this teaching? we must answer frankly that they are not prepared, but that the work must be undertaken regardless of the difficulty. There is no one else to do it more effectively, and no one likely to be less biased. We may assure ourselves beyond all fear of contradiction that, even if the work be poorly done, nevertheless the fogs and mists in the minds of children on these questions will be thinner after the teaching than before. Teachers

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are not yet prepared to discuss these questions, yet a sufficient answer is that few persons are really prepared to discuss them and yet everybody is discussing them. Despite many opinions to the contrary, the teacher's education is broad, her outlook is wide, and she is less likely than others to believe in doctrinaire solutions and more likely to believe in education. The one saving phase of the situation to-day is that some persons are willing to say that the problem is complicated and needs careful study before sweeping changes can be proposed. No other group of persons than teachers believes so thoroly in the plan of studying problems and letting whatever solution seems appropriate emerge as a result of the study. The work can be begun, and meantime schools for the education of teachers can begin to do their part.

It is wise to lay down certain postulates for the successful conduct of such work. One is that a person who is so radical as to disbelieve in political action should not hold a position in the public school. Our American organization has a constitution, providing for amendment by a method of discussion and voting. If any teacher can not be parliamentary, can not ask for recognition in the usual way and proceed thru channels of discussion and voting, he or she has no place as teacher in the public school. Those who hope for or work for an extra-constitutional revolution may perhaps be allowed to teach adults, but not children. Again, we may agree that the right to free speech is limited, for example, that one should not have the right to yell "Fire" in a theater, or to gather together or address people under false pretences, or to insult or libel them. We may frankly tell the children, nevertheless, that, in spite of all the progress we can show them, we in American life do not get the best men for office, that there are still too many small incomes to be sorry for and too many big incomes to be ashamed of, that sin abounds where righteousness is needed, and that this sin is shielded by hypocrisy, the sin which the Great Teacher condemned most roundly. Above all, we must teach that progress does not come without conscious striving.

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The question—Can children understand industrial problems? must be answered in the same terms as the one before asked about teachers, that is, children must be led to understand these questions—there is no other way of escape. If we have an industrial people with a low general standard of intelligence, they will nevertheless demand a place in the sun, and our only defense is to do all we can to teach them, and at the least to develop a tentative attitude toward problems whose answers can not be written in the back of the book.

I have myself experimented with enough children to know that many important facts in occupational problems can easily be explained and discussed in the elementary schools. One of my most interesting experiences was a brief and simple exposition of the questions involved in throwing taxation on land and exempting improvements. By means of diagrams at the board, and without my taking sides, this was made clear to a class of seventh graders in a Los Angeles junior high school, and I tested their reaction afterwards and found that they had understood. Because there is ignorance of industrial questions to-day in the American population is no cause for discouragement; we never have really tried to teach these questions. One evening recently I engaged in conversation with a man who made the statement: "It seems to me that if I rent a house of a man and do not own any house of my own, I should not be allowed to vote on bond questions; then I am voting what shall be done with his money." In about sixty seconds' time I pointed out to him that a landlord always fixed rent at such a figure as to include such items as interest, depreciation, repairs, insurance, and taxes, and that any one who earns the money to buy a loaf of bread at a grocery store or to live in a house helps to pay taxes on the grocery store and on the house. He at once responded that he had never thought of it in that way before. We shall find the same interest and desire for enlightenment on the part of the children, when we discuss with them such questions as—Who pays the taxes,

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how farmers cooperate, what furnishes the money for the pay envelope, how people get work, what are unions for, what happens in a strike, how does education help workers, how workers depend on each other, what overhead expense is, how advertising is paid for, the right and wrong kinds of salesmanship, why political parties have to interest themselves in labor problems, what the banks do to help farmers and how the farmers help the banks, what capital is for and how interest is paid, and so on thru the list of questions about which men are worrying and quarreling to-day.

Enlightenment should be our watchword, and with this as our motto we can vindicate our right to work in this field. Neither newspapers nor magazines furnish us with the help necessary. The *New Republic* has recently shown the untrustworthy character of the news about Russia published in one of the best New York City papers. Upton Sinclair in *The Brass Check* has shown the helplessness of the American public when it depends for its history of yesterday on the American newspapers. Whatever reservations one may have about these two references as sources of authority, there are facts enough in their documents to lead us to make a critical comparison of the school life of to-day with the needs of to-morrow. And if we wish better authority, we will be met by the report of the Committee of Twelve on the recent activities of the Department of Justice; if this report be compared with newspaper reports, we shall see how little some public officials and many newspapers really care to defend American institutions. We are exceedingly careful in this country that the history of a century ago shall be written in an unbiased manner; we are exceedingly careless of the sources of our history of yesterday, in spite of the great importance of this history to the children with whom we deal. No greater service toward enlightenment could be done eighth grade children than to bring into class for criticism the newspapers of one's city.

No doubt many cautions need to be given to teachers

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who engage in the work of spreading enlightenment about industrial questions. They must be told that everything must be said and done in conventional form. People in places of authority are frequently far more disturbed by unconventionality than by error. Again, both sides of controversial questions must be discussed; there must be no attempt to give just one. Children must be allowed to talk freely, and their opinions must always be more important than that of the teacher. The teacher must have a right to her views and must have the right to express them briefly to the children, allowing full time after such expression for contrary statements on the part of the pupils. Occasionally disagreements in the schoolroom may prove less dangerous than industrial quarrels outside, and full discussion should help to prevent such quarrels. The teacher must not make a speech. She must not let the class be dismissed upon a complex or tense situation. She must keep the children cheerful in their discussion. She must not allow any oratory to cloud the issue. She must carefully gauge the standard of development of her pupils and give them food appropriate to their growth in industrial enlightenment. She must inculcate the right kind of free speech on the part of the children, with careful listening, and must try to cultivate something of the university tradition for free discussion in the classroom with no reporters present. She must show that modern capitalism is a new development in human life, that its advantages need to be conserved, and that solutions will be found, without injury to any good thing. She must show the bad features of capitalism and the errors of the unions; she must show constitutional action going on in an industry as well as in government. She must have the children understand thoroly what is meant by the open shop and the two kinds of closed shop; and must show them that the open shop may not be so simple a question as Mr. Gary says it is or the closed shop so simple as Mr. Gompers describes it. Children must be taught not to call names and try to label each other on the basis of newspaper

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captions in vogue at present. They must be taught that political parties are intimately concerned with economic and occupational welfare and that platforms deal with these questions as well as with distinctly political ones. They must be taught that the professional spirit must everywhere be developed and that cobblers, plumbers, grocers, and carpet cleaners need a professional spirit as well as doctors, teachers, and preachers.

On the part of principals, superintendents of schools, and boards of education there must be a better understanding of the need for and process of education in industrial problems. Principals must understand that teachers are likely to be misquoted by children. Teachers must be taught growth in discretion and leadership in this new form of work. Teachers sometimes ask for absolution in advance by such a remark as "Don't you think I ought to teach about the causes of this strike?" No school administrator can say either "Yes" or "No" to this question, and it is far better for the teacher to realize her duty and go ahead with her work without asking for the endorsement of a discussion before it takes place.

It is worth while to reiterate that our own personal opinions as teachers are not to be imposed upon children. For myself, when I look out upon industrial life and find that, before they can earn money, ninety-six men in every one hundred must ask and secure permission to work from the other four, I confess that I am almost ready to paraphrase Lincoln and say "This nation's industrial life can not endure with four per cent owners and ninety-six per cent employed." I do not, however, voice this opinion upon all occasions and I do not make it in any radical sense, believing as I do in evolutionary and constitutional changes by making the best of present organizations and proceeding by the process of education to whatever better ways the future will disclose.

JOHN M. BREWER
HARVARD UNIVERSITY,
CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

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VI

A NEW ORIENTATION FOR THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

I approach this subject primarily from the standpoint of the undergraduate college. Other interests are necessarily involved, but since the college absorbs a considerable part of the product of the graduate school, it is fitting that the judgment of college executives should be heard. It is quite beside my purpose to examine in detail the technique of organization or the modes of operation. These will be changed and improved under the compelling power of circumstance. I desire first to examine the professed aims of the school, and secondly to suggest at least one point in which a radical departure in form may and should be undertaken in the near future.

I

If the aims of the graduate school be carefully analysed, it will be found that three definite ideas have taken shape in the minds of its students. Some matriculants have no other purpose than to secure an enlargement of their sphere of knowledge. This is usually done by following some interest excited during undergraduate days or by adopting for study a subject suggested by later experience. In sporadic cases a graduate school may discourage the use of its facilities by the general student, on the ground that it interferes with the technical and professional standards prescribed by an alert faculty. Yet we must remember that all of our academic traditions are in line with the spirit of this group. In the older English universities, essence, not mathematically determined credit, was the goal of every earnest student. In France, the *Cours Publics* at the Sorbonne and other seats of learning have evoked a remarkable degree of enthusiasm, especially when pre-

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sented by gifted experts like Bergson and Durkheim. In our own country we can not forget the splendid reactions secured from a Cambridge audience by Prof. Royce in his lectures on the Spirit of Modern Philosophy. There is a place in graduate circles for the unaccredited student. Nothing that we shall hereafter say should be considered in opposition to his claims.

But the other groups are necessarily of more value to an educational system. The typical graduate school is governed by two principles, first, training for research, and secondly, preparation for teaching. These two may go together in certain conspicuous instances, but ordinarily they are to be kept rigidly apart. I shall not enter into a discussion of the mooted question whether scientific investigation should be conducted within or without the pale of the university. There are good arguments on either side. England has in times past inclined to the latter position, Darwin standing as the classical example in the modern period. It has been assumed that the multifarious demands of the lecture room or laboratory unfit the scientist in body and mind to deal with his peculiar problems. On the other hand, we are told, the finest incentive to work that any student can have is the magnetic atmosphere of the successful thinker's presence. Hence, contrary to English procedure, the tendency in America is to a university-centered field of research, one of the most notable examples in recent times being the affiliation of the Mayo Clinics at Rochester, Minnesota, with the State University.

Everyone will admit that scientific studies carried on for the determination of original facts must inevitably occupy the mind to the exclusion of personal interests. The teacher is lost in the investigator. The effect is curiously reflected in the student's plans. He becomes the private emissary of a high-strung specialist. His doctor's dissertation is not so much the product of independent study as one factor in the general subject under examination in the department. The student, in other words, has become a spoke in the wheel, not the wheel itself. His

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academic teleology can be understood only in relation to the comprehensive program of the professor. If the men in training are to seek their fortunes in industrial laboratories, in medical clinics, in organizations for surveys, in the preparation of books for publication, then no exception can be taken to the method just described. The expert must save every ounce of knowledge for the task in hand. He must not allow his attention to flag or his zeal to be diverted to other channels. The graduate school which aims to train men for positions of research can afford to have on its staff certain officials who never enter a classroom and never prepare a lecture for public presentation.

But such graduate schools are few. The admitted aim of the majority is to fit men for teaching in a given field. The broad field is the college, and a specific subject is the allotted point within the field. By such an adjustment the graduate school becomes the normal school for college teachers. This is the function which we desire to emphasize. The time is long past when untrained men can undertake the difficult tasks of the college classroom. Two definite qualifications are now demanded of the teacher: first, he must have detailed and technical knowledge of the subject, not merely a cultural acquaintance with it, and secondly, he must have an acknowledged and proved ability to teach. For a generation graduate schools have endeavored to develop the first of these qualifications, and in a fair measure they have succeeded. They have not, however, recognized the need of the second. Until recently, schools of education had been of collegiate grade only, and the atmosphere of the normal school has hung persistently about the desk of the lecturer on pedagogy. More recent developments in educational practise bid fair to supply the defect. Harvard has created a Graduate School of Education and Yale has established a department within the Graduate School. Which arrangement is more fruitful can be determined only by the event. But in either case the principle is clear. No candidate for a teaching position in college will hereafter be permitted to

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enter upon his work without some training in the technique of his profession. It is obviously unfair to candidates to let them hug the ancient delusion that a mind possessed of its subject can without fail introduce other minds to a satisfactory acquaintance with it. It is also unfair to the college to thrust into its faculty young instructors who have never studied the wonderful dramas of psychology or had a chance to try their hand at teaching under the supervision of an expert guide. We therefore propose that the *sine qua non* for granting the doctor's degree to men who expect to enter the teaching profession, shall be an adequate course in the principles and practises of education.

II

Let it be accepted, then, that the training of college teachers is one of the vital functions of the graduate school. Like every other going concern, the school has its serious problems. I purpose to study one of these and suggest a solution. The problem is real and extremely complex. It may be set forth in the guise of a question. In a country of continental area covering many types of racial tradition, how shall we secure such uniformity of program as will guarantee to graduates an equal preparation for their career? The results thus far have been somewhat disconcerting. Already there is a plain tendency to discriminate between the several institutions. The differences noted do not concern the substance of the curriculum, but go down to the organic structure of the school. These differences sometimes have to do with the interpretation of graduate work, sometimes with the emphasis on specific points of technique, sometimes with the attitude of the governing body toward the place of the school in the scheme of university organization.

I have already touched upon the first point. As to the second, sharp divergences of practise occur; for example, in the treatment of the doctor's dissertation. An examination of prevailing usages was made by the Association of American Universities in 1908. The evidences of proficiency were not altogether encouraging. In some cases the thesis was made the supreme aim of the student in

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his preparation for the degree. In other cases it occupied a minor place in the official requirements. Where it stood out as the capstone of an academic career, there was an obvious tendency to restrict its contents to a relatively small area within the bounds of a given subject. The Teutonic lust for detail, for citation of authority, for an exhaustive survey of a single minute issue, constituted the leading characteristic of the work. The result was that men went from this meticulous investigation in the University into the college classroom and attempted to apply the "thoro" methods of science in their contact with freshman intellects. Disaster at times ensued and the instructor was written down as having mistaken his calling. But the error lay not in his inherent worth but in his training. This error has been so widespread that we are quite justified in asking for the adoption of some standard practise which will right the wrong, if and where it exists, in order that we may save both candidate and college from a disagreeable situation.

I said also that grave differences exist at times in the attitude of the governing bodies. Trustees as a rule are not interested in the training of teachers. They entertain the common fallacy that teachers, like poets, are born and not made, and that any effort to train, except for the elementary grades, is a work of supererogation. Besides this, they have their attention fixed upon more dramatic, more tangible objects,—agriculture, engineering, commerce or the learned professions. These command the public interest and these must, therefore, be first provided for. The reaction of such an attitude upon the work of the graduate department is benumbing to a degree.

I realize that quite a different story will be told if we examine institutions whose graduate school is historically an extension of the college course. In many of the older colleges bachelor, master, doctor, are logical steps in the development of the academic mind. It is a simple task to convince their authorities that adequate provision must be made for advanced courses. The successful

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appeal, however, is grounded not on the need of teacher training, but on the prestige to be won by extending the frontiers of knowledge.

In face of such varied views as to the purposes of the graduate school, how, we ask, can we expect the universities of the nation to adopt common methods of operation or institute uniform tests for the award of the degree? The problem is complicated by the addition of the historical factor. The uniformity of English university life in the early nineteenth century was a phase of educational experience which we could not repeat on this side of the Atlantic. But even in England, economic and political changes at length produced a remarkable variation in university types. In like manner, in America, the demands of social evolution have constructed higher institutions of the most diverse character. This diversity of character has inevitably been expressed in the activities of the graduate department. True, many of the newer universities have been manned by instructors trained in the older schools, or in Germany. Still, each community has shaped its methods according to the genius of its own life, and distance has tended to accentuate the differences between the new and the old.

III

Considering carefully facts like these, it would be vain to attempt a mechanical equalization of the several kinds of graduate schools. Nor would it be desirable. What we should aim at is not the obliteration of types, but the adoption of uniform methods of training which are applicable to all. As a means for reaching so important an end, I am making in this paper a specific proposal. Let me state its terms and then outline the arguments in its favor. I may say at the outset that the program proposed has no inherent relation to the plans for the federalization of our educational system. We are asking for no governmental authority to be invoked to execute its terms. Authority is vested solely in the cooperating institutions and in whatever form of executive council they may agree to establish.

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The essence of the program consists in appointing territorial zones of graduate education, each of which shall have an administrative center. The continental area divides itself naturally into such groups as east, south, middle-west, Rocky Mountain district and the Pacific slope. An academic division, however, can not be determined solely by geographical or economic lines. We are obliged to consider the graduate resources of the group, that is, the number of approved schools already in existence, the size and relative stability of the student body in each school, the facilities for scientific research, including laboratories and libraries, the acknowledged ability of the teaching force and the success of their graduates in the actual service of instruction. We may also consider whether some of the schools already in existence should not be consolidated and others consciously and substantially strengthened. The selection of the zone centers should be made on the basis of geographical accessibility, tho the actual center is, in this program, a matter of lesser importance and may be changed at will. It will serve primarily as the clearing house for the activities of the individual school. Or, to change the metaphor, the center of the graduate zone will be like one of the Federal Reserve banks, its distinct purpose being to study and standardize the negotiations of the individual schools.

To come to the point at once:—the academic center shall consist of an examining board for the entire zone. We propose that every school shall elect a proper number of constituent members of the board, charged with the express official duty of determining who shall be admitted to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and on what terms. We shall confine the application of the program at first to the highest degree of the profession. The necessity of some central standardizing authority here is apparent in face both of the experience of the graduate school itself and of the college which employs its candidates. Loose methods of examination are certain to prevail, unless they are subject to the objective tests of a common standard.

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However willing separate schools may be to comply with a standard, the inertia of custom, or sometimes plain unembellished laziness, forbids. The competence and authority of a central board will eliminate undesirable habits at once. The very fact that membership in the board brings together instructors who are jealous of the honor of their particular departments will be a fair guaranty of success. But in addition to this, we must reckon with the judgment of a variety of minds, each busy with the same type of problem. When these agree upon the terms for granting the degree, and then upon the persons who shall receive it, we are assured of a true test in a matter of the greatest consequence to the success of undergraduate instruction.

I am forced to meet certain sharp and challenging objections at the very start. For example, I am told that professorial courtesy like that obtaining in the United States Senate would nullify the naïve expectations of the reformer. If some distinguished professor of philosophy recommends a candidate for the degree, it would be extremely presumptuous for men of lesser attainments to undertake an inquiry into the results of his technical training. The answer, however, is very simple. The student, not the instructor, is the waiting candidate. If he has profited by the tuition of his master, he can easily demonstrate both his own knowledge and the skill of his teacher under the grilling ordeal of an examination. The test will in no sense be a criticism upon the nature of the instruction but always an evidence of its success.

Again, we are told that individual schools will never give up their right to determine the substance of the degree and the qualifications of its recipient. The authorities of the state have conferred the right and they propose to keep it. If the program, they say, were carried to its possible limits, the college could not grant even the undergraduate degrees at will, and might ultimately be restrained from deciding who should be admitted to its halls. I am aware that the doctrine of political provincialism long ago extended its influence to academic circles. Graduate

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faculties have jealously guarded their privileges in the premises. Nevertheless, in the light of new requirements growing out of a changed social situation, we must demand a revision of former methods. Education is more explicitly social to-day than it has ever been. Educational practise must adopt the new point of view. Tradition, prejudice, and local pride must be abandoned. If the proposed program can be shown to furnish a way for securing better teachers, then by all means let us adopt its essential factor, *viz.*, the examination of all candidates by an elective, representative, and responsible board.

Still another objection has been made by our critics. They tell us that the program is novel and untried, that it has no exact precedent and that we should scrutinize it with great care before adopting it. The program in general, however, is not so new as many educators may believe. A study of the organization of the University of London will give us a clue to the efficiency developed within the corporate life of a complex institution. In London a group of colleges with individual rights in conferring degrees voluntarily surrendered those rights into the keeping of the larger body. Each college is represented on the governing board according to its relative importance. The teaching staff remains potentially under the control of the local institution. The content of the curriculum is for the most part fixed by the same authority. Discipline and student development are classed as the duties of the member-colleges. But the award of the degree is the business of the university senate. Individual faculties can not fix its terms or decide whether they have been satisfied by the candidate. The result is a degree whose worth is recognized in every country under the sun.

No parallel, I admit, can ever be quite exact. There are problems occurring in the field of graduate study which are never suggested in the lower level. Nevertheless, *mutatis mutandis*, the general principles involved in the award of the baccalaureate degrees by a supervisory council, apply with equal force to the granting of the higher

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degrees. There must be uniformity of requirements and uniformity of methods in judging whether these requirements have been met. The scheme worked out in London after much debate and mutual sacrifice has already proven its value. Compromise, we say, is the saving grace of British character. If not compromise, yet the merging of conflicting judgments into a common program, is certainly the keynote to American success. In no part of our social program is such a policy more valuable than in education, and in no part of our educational system is it more sharply needed than at its very head.

I have argued thus far for centralization of graduate work within a single zone. In the nature of the case, the country must be divided into several zones, each with its consolidated authority. But these zones should not be kept apart except by distance. The purpose animating all must be the same. It is likely that the dominating subjects of study will differ, but the qualifications for the degree must be determined and applied with rigor and discretion. In order to standardize and keep standard the academic forms, a national advisory council should be appointed. Its duties will be like those of a court of last resort. In most cases American good sense can settle differences of opinion within the limits of the zone. But certain complex cases will arise which demand the conjoined judgment of men who view the situation from widely differing angles. If education be a national concern, as all men now agree, and if in order to secure a national status, education must adopt standards applicable to and actually operative in every community, then the graduate school can no longer be left as a free lance to follow any whim it may select. Its management and technique must have a standard character. The doctor's degree must possess the same meaning in every corner of the land. I shall not attempt to formulate the details of the system which will accomplish the end in view. The Association of American Universities, which began as a federation of institutions having graduate departments,

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can easily perfect the scheme. All we need to say here is we do not miscalculate the importance of other problems when we say that one of the first changes required in our educational program will be a new orientation for the graduate school.

IV

It is clear from our previous discussion that so radical a change can not be proposed without encountering a sharp challenge from the individualist and the academic conservative. Let me, therefore, state the arguments which I deem to be in favor of the change.

First, we may assume that a standard course of graduate study will be guaranteed to the student and that a standard grade of scholarship will be exacted from him. This does not mean that the graduate school is to become an academic machine cutting out a limited number of precise patterns for use in college faculties. We object strongly to any method which turns out nothing but a German *privat-docent.* Especially in the preparation of the dissertation, American students must be encouraged to acquaint themselves with the high principles of the subject and not merely with its minute, innumerable details. But along with the emphasis upon principles, we shall demand a standard method of appraising them, and a standard, yet flexible scheme for reducing them to writing. In other words, the loose, incommensurable forms which have taken root in some quarters will at once be exchanged for a common mode of scholarly investigation. Sectional idiosyncrasies will die away in the struggle for the development of a real American scholarship.

I can foresee another result of a different kind, a highly desirable effect, whatever its cause. It is admitted on all hands that many graduate schools are carrying courses which should be dropped from the roster. Pride only keeps them in their place—and perhaps sympathy for their struggling cultivators. The program now proposed will give an opportunity for the massing of intellectual forces. If one university by its traditions or its library

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collections can develop the study of oriental languages, there is no reason under the sun why another institution in the same or neighboring zone should become its rival. The principle we are defining is that in fundamental studies all graduate schools must have an equal chance, but that in a rarer and more highly specialized field, research and instruction should be confined to a particular institution and the others should contribute to its success in that department. This ideal may be lofty, but it opens the true path for unselfish science to follow.

A second argument for the change is found in its effect upon the colleges that take the graduate school's product. I have already sounded and repeated this note. It is the fact with which I began. As things go now, the colleges can not exist without the graduate school. If they are to exist at all, certainly if they are to improve their mode of teaching, they must appeal to the graduate faculties for help. They have a right to demand positive assurance that they can get from one group of schools the same kind of teachers as from another. State authorities of public instruction long ago gave up the notion that independent normal schools should be allowed to set their own standards. In the best state systems there is now but one normal school standard. Is it asking too much that we should establish a uniform grade of work for all candidates for the doctor's degree? By this means alone can the college receive any guaranty that its engagement with a new instructor will have a reasonable chance of success.

Finally, a zoning of the graduate schools will secure certain extra-scholastic results. It will impress the people of the nation with the serious aims of the college and the university. Despite the new interest in higher education, the nation at large is not yet convinced that college instructors are really in earnest in their work. Professors have been appraised by a standard quite different from that applied to captains of industry or legal and medical practitioners. They have occupied a sphere apart, a

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sort of Martian aloofness which they have abandoned only under the stress of poverty or the lure of political preferment. The war has changed public opinion in this matter after a fashion. But the real change should come not in the sentiment of the public, but of the group itself. No one will deny that college instructors have worked hard, have sacrificed their own interests, have often stinted themselves even to the point of the momentary waiving of their self-respect. But they have not taken care to build up a professional order, solidify its interests, publish its rights, and demand for it a parity of influence with other factors in society. Therefore we need to make this point clear, that faculty men are men first, and afterwards men of a profession. We need also to prove that service in the university can and does prepare men to undertake the serious obligations of political office or to direct the development of economic practises. But especially do we need to make plain to every observer that college teaching is a serious and engrossing business, which we are pursuing with the concentrated energy of trained and devoted minds. Let the graduate school insist on inculcating such professional ideals in the hearts of its students, and in due course of time college teaching will arrest the attention of thoughtful citizens and elicit from them a cordial and sympathetic support of the college enterprise.

There will, I apprehend, be still another result. The effort of American colleges to have their degrees recognized by foreign universities has for the most part failed. The war, however, has materially changed the attitude of foreign observers. The immense material resources which America threw into the struggle, were supplemented by an extraordinary display of mental energy, from the President down to the humblest sergeant in the ranks. The genius of America shone with conspicuous luster in the activity of her educated groups. American intellect became, so to say, a vogue in European chancelleries. Even Keynes's malicious insinuations, already proven baseless, have merely recharged the curiosity of Europe. This interest we must now capitalize, must fund in secure investments. How?

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One way is obviously open—to make our academic degrees worth their professed value. The baccalaureate degree should subtend a sound and pertinent college education under thoroly prepared instructors. The doctor's degree should embrace approved methods of study and research valid for the entire nation. Each of these degrees must carry such explicit content that when it is presented at a foreign university its holder can be fitted at once into his proper place in the educational system.

The substance of our plea, then, is an assertion of the right of the American teacher to share directly in the promotion of all phases of international culture. The commonwealth of letters is no ideal fiction of the scholar's imagination. It is an energetic force capable of cementing the interests of the most divergent races. By such potential names as Gibbs and Cope and James, American education has already made its contribution to universal science. By such names as Hopkins, Dwight, and McCosh, we have laid the foundation for superior college training which has obtained recognition far beyond the confines of our own land. Thru the influence of great educators, some of whom are still alive, we have developed a distinctive university system which has challenged the admiration of foreign students, and in some instances suggested changes in their own. It remains now to put the professor's degree on its right footing, to make it the passport to the intellectual resources of other peoples, to advertise to the world that in America the teaching profession is no longer a subordinate occupation but an honorable and rewarding vocation.

The time is critical, the opportunity is at hand. Tradition, custom, ancient exclusiveness must be surrendered for the good of the common cause. The future depends upon the decision of the graduate schools. If the program here proposed be adopted, we make no doubt that success beyond the dreams of its most sanguine advocates awaits the efforts of the pioneer.

Temple University,
Philadelphia, Pa.

James H. Dunham

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VII

DISCUSSION

HOW AND WHY ECONOMICS SHOULD BE TAUGHT IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS

The most important questions which confront our civilization to-day are economic in character, and even those which have to do with other activities or interests are affected by economic considerations. An excellent illustration of this fact is found in the issues which were discussed in the recent presidential campaign—immigration, foreign trade, federal taxation, industrial relations, high cost of living, etc.

Without taking the extreme view of economic determinism, it may safely be asserted that our leading problems are economic and that their correct determination calls for a knowledge of economic science and the application of correct economic principles. The World War and its effects provide the world with its great outstanding problems to-day. Not only are these primarily economic and financial, but the war itself in large measure grew out of economic considerations.

The economic pressure of a rapidly growing population in Germany, which doubled in sixty years, combined with an incorrect analysis of the nature and value of foreign trade, together with overweening political and military ambitions, led to the greatest war in history. Our own participation in this struggle was made necessary by the disregard and defiance of our rights as neutral traders. In fact it can be shown that the determining factor in all wars in which this nation has engaged, has in the last analysis been economic in its nature. The colonists went to war with England in defence of their right to carry on profitable lines of trade which the mother country tried to suppress, and also the right to issue their own paper money. "Taxation without representation" made a convenient slogan at the time, but it is now recognized that more fundamental

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economic issues lay behind the political demands. The war of 1812 was fought to secure our commercial rights on the high seas; the war with Mexico resulted from the need of the slave-owners of the southwest for more land in which to push their extensive exploitive system of cotton growing; the Civil War was at bottom the inevitable struggle between two opposing systems of labor, that of free labor working for a competitive wage and that of compulsory slave labor. Even the Spanish War, in which idealistic motives probably played as large a part as is possible in any such struggle, may be traced to the investments in Cuban sugar plantations of American capital. And if we should go to war with Mexico in the future, does any one doubt that our investments in oil lands would be a leading factor in bringing about such a conflict? The justification of a resort to arms to decide the various issues involved in these wars need not be raised; the simple fact remains that the issues themselves were fundamentally economic.

There never was an age in which economic questions were so important or so predominant. Human interests differ from time to time, and so, too, the problems vary which are presented to society for solution. In the Middle Ages men's minds were absorbed by religious considerations, and from the theological controversies there resulted the Reformation. In the seventeenth and eighteenth century the great issue presented was that of constitutional government and to its solution the greatest intellects of the day gave their best. But the nineteenth century was primarily industrial; in that period industry was completely revolutionized and greater material progress was made than in all preceding history. The rapid, almost dizzy, progress of this period has left to the twentieth century some serious economic problems, whose solution calls for the application of our best talents. We are often reproached for the sordidness of our interests and are called material-minded; but the truth is that no greater challenge was ever given to the human intellect and soul than is presented by the social and economic problems of to-day. The present industrial

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unrest has, moreover, rendered these problems much more significant and their correct solution more imperative than has ever been the case before.

The United States has always been the testing ground for new social and economic experiments. We are venturesome and less bound by custom and tradition than most peoples; consequently new schemes and rash proposals receive a hearing and trial in this country more readily than in most places. Our people have constantly to pass judgment upon these questions and to form opinions as to their reasonableness. Moreover, since our government is democratic, more questions are referred for decision at the polls than in any other country, and most of these questions are either directly economic or involve economic considerations. And finally, as a worker earning and spending his income, the citizen is called upon daily to make decisions which are economic in character. It seems clear that if he is to meet his obligations intelligently, the average citizen should possess a knowledge of economic principles, should have his powers of observation and discrimination trained, and be able to apply his knowledge to the problems presented to him.

A good system of education should fit its students to be (*a*) better citizens, (*b*) more productive and efficient members of society, and (*c*) better able to enjoy life. It should enable them to understand contemporary civilization, to adapt themselves to it, and where necessary to help to modify and improve it. In all these aims economics must take a leading part. One of the purposes of this study is to give a definite training to the citizen which will better fit him for the responsibilities thrust upon him by our present political, social, and industrial organization. Various definitions have been framed of the "good citizen" and the qualities of citizenship held in highest esteem have varied at different periods. In times of war the good citizen is expected to exhibit certain military virtues, but in the normal times of peace other quite different demands are made upon him. In general, however, it may be said that the good citizen is the man who can help intelligently

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to solve the problems that grow out of a complex industrial development, and who can prove himself a helpful member of the social environment in which he lives. At the present time economic life is social life. The citizen who disobeys economic law is to that extent a dangerous member of society. Thrift, frugality, extravagance, waste, profiteering, shirking, are economic concepts which present questions of right or wrong. The man or woman, therefore, who has gained right ideas about economic conduct has also gained right ideas about social conduct. He has learned lessons in ethics which are invaluable and should enable him to distinguish more clearly between what is right and what is wrong.

If a man learns these elementary principles and bases his conduct thereon, he will certainly prove a more efficient and productive member of society. It may fairly be expected that his earning capacity will be increased thereby, as it would be by any subject in the curriculum that affords a high degree of mental training. The main purpose of economic study, however, is not so much to increase earning power as to render the student a more useful member of society.

The object of economic education is to show men how to live, as well as how to produce, and in this connection the lessons of economics are of paramount importance. Goods are produced in order to be consumed; income is earned in order to be spent. The consumer has valuable lessons to learn in thrift, in wise expenditure, and in investment, whether this be in the form of health and well-being, of education for increased future earning power, or in deposits in a savings bank. Self-help, self-restraint, far-sightedness, discrimination are among the qualities developed.

According to information furnished by the United States Bureau of Education, about 60 per cent of the students who enter high school end their education at that point.[1]

[1] According to the Bureau of Education 27.4 per cent of students graduating from high schools in the United States in 1917 went to college, while 13.7 per cent continued their education in other institutions of learning, or a total of 41.1 per cent.

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If training in economics is to be given to these students, it is, therefore, clear that it must be in the high school. To educate a few leaders in the colleges is clearly not sufficient. The mass of our citizenship, both men and women, must be given instruction and understanding of the essential facts and principles of our economic life. The possibility of effective leadership is limited by the levels of popular understanding, and the level can be raised only by public school instruction.

Economics furnishes a kind of mental training hardly to be found outside the social sciences. It is as valuable, as mathematics, but differs from it. The reasoning of mathematics is logical and rigid; that of economics is not less logical, but is based upon probabilities; if certain premises are given, certain results will probably follow. But allowance must always be made for unknown factors and for that most variable element, human nature. Since this is the reasoning used in practical life, such a discipline is of special value in the schools.

A certain amount of economic knowledge is obtained from our daily conversation, reading, and experiences. But the knowledge thus gained by the average man is obtained in haphazard fashion and is apt to be one-sided and frequently erroneous. The boys who go from the public schools to the shops and factories will undoubtedly hear much discussion of economic problems, but it will probably consist of inflammatory denunciations of existing institutions and of uninformed debate over social questions. What likelihood is there of forming rational judgments in such an atmosphere on the part of a young man without any previous education in these subjects?

Accurate statistics are lacking that would show the proportion of high schools in the United States giving instruction in economics, but the number has certainly been growing. A few scattered figures may be given by way of illustration. In 1893 about one-twentieth of the high schools replying to a circular reported courses in economics; in 1912 the proportion given in a limited inquiry was about one-

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fifth; today the proportion is certainly not less and may be greater. The number grows, moreover, as one travels from East to West; in California about two-fifths of the high schools are reported to be giving work in economics.[2] This work consists in the great majority of cases either of commercial geography, economic history, or the principles of economics. If possible, all of these subjects should be taught; but if it is found that there is time for only one, economics it is believed, should be that one. As commercial geography and the history of commerce are to be discussed by other speakers, this paper is confined to the consideration of the desirability of having the principles of economics taught in our high schools.

Various objections have from time to time been raised against the teaching of economics in the high school, of which the one which has apparently had the greatest weight in excluding this subject is that the curriculum is already crowded and there is no room for it. This contention has undoubtedly delayed the introduction of economics into many schools, but if what has been said as to its importance is true, there can be no doubt as to its desirability. The usual allotment of time for this subject is five periods a week for a half year in those schools where it is given at all. When this is compared with the full year given to algebra and geometry or the three or four years devoted to a language, it is clear that the ordinary high school course would be greatly broadened and enriched by making room for a course in economics even at the expense of the older disciplines. In my own experience as a teacher of economics I have been impressed by the eagerness with which the average student approaches the subject when he is given an opportunity to elect it.

Another objection relates to the lack of teachers and their unpreparedness. Unfortunately, the first difficulty is being accentuated at the present time. The low salaries paid our public school teachers, utterly unrelated to the value

[2] Stuart Daggett, Method and Scope of High School Economics, in The History Teachers' Magazine, 3, 172.

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of their services or the cost of living, has resulted in a dangerous decline in the number available, especially among the better-trained teachers. The lack of training in economics was being rapidly cured by the colleges before the war, and they may be trusted to prepare the next generation of teachers adequately for their new tasks.

It is frequently urged that the subject matter of economics is too abstract and difficult to be grasped easily by high school students. It may be conceded that it would be inadvisable and confusing to introduce a fourth year high school student into the controversial realm of economic theory, but this is not necessary. There is a large body of economic doctrine upon which there is general agreement, that is easily within the grasp of even an immature student, and there are several excellent textbooks that present this material in teachable and understandable form.

Another difficulty has to do with the mental attitude of the student. In the case of chemistry or physics he approaches the subject with a fresh and open mind, but in the case of economics even the youngest student is apt to possess preconceived ideas or prejudices. It must be confessed, however, that economic misconceptions are by no means confined to young people of high school age. Among these may be cited the "lump of labor" theory that there is just so much work to be done, and that if some men work overtime or produce too much, there is so much less employment for other men; or the idea that extravagant expenditure is a good thing because it gives employment to labor and puts money in circulation; or the notion that trade which is advantageous to a foreign nation must be regarded with suspicion by us; or that we can under present conditions expand our exports indefinitely without increasing our imports.

Finally, there is still difference of opinion among teachers themselves as to the best method of teaching economics. Some teachers insist that the students should study only descriptive material and make their own generalizations; in other words, should follow the inductive method. Others

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prefer to give the principles to the students first, and then confirm and verify these by reference to facts. The latter seems the preferable method, and the one likely to obtain more lasting results. A clear line of demarcation must be made between investigation and teaching. It is the duty of economic science to reduce the knowledge gained in this field to scientific generalizations, to convert the experience of previous generations into working principles for this, and it is the duty of economic education to present these principles in teachable form. High school students or teachers are not expected to advance the frontiers of human knowledge; they are fortunate if they can master the principles already ascertained.

A highly successful teacher[3] of economics has stated that it should be the aim of the elementary course to ensure that the "students carry away with them a body of economic doctrine which has a high degree of definiteness, which is held with a firm and certain grasp, and which is, in some measure at least, available." Students thus equipped would be able to apply the principles to concrete cases in after life and to defend with reasonable effectiveness the economic truths they have learned.

The most valuable lesson which can be learned from a study of economics, in the opinion of the speaker, is that of social solidarity and of the economic interdependence of all classes of society. By this is not meant a sentimental insistence upon a non-existent harmony of interests, but rather an appreciation of the absolute interdependence of the different factors of production in spite of real conflicts of interest in the distribution of the product. We are all members of the same body.

In times of discontent like these there is danger that some classes or groups will flout economic principles and place in danger our social institutions. On the other hand, vested interests may oppose desirable reforms and by so doing inflame opposition. To both these extremes eco-

[3] F. M. Taylor, Methods of Teaching Elementary Economics at the University of Michigan, in Journal of Political Economy, 17, 688.

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nomics is a useful antidote. If disaster is to be averted, sane councils based upon careful analysis and comprehension must prevail. Right thinking is a matter of education. The world has recently witnessed an object lesson in the power of education. In a single generation the school teachers of Germany were able to change completely the ideals and aims, if not the character, of the German people. The power that was there utilized for ignoble ends could surely be directed in the United States to the development of noble social ideals and cordial industrial relations. And who can doubt the success of such efforts if effectively begun in our public schools and carried systematically thru our institutions of higher learning? Surely such a sustained effort would be preferable to the periodic and spasmodic attempts we make to educate the whole electorate on some vital issue during the heat of a single campaign.

E. L. Bogart

University of Illinois,
Urbana, Illinois

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VIII

REVIEWS

Education and the general welfare (a textbook of school law, hygiene and management)—By FRANK K. SECHRIST. The Macmillan Company. 1920. 443 p.

Sechrist's *Education and the general welfare* is a practical, sane discussion of many important matters relating to school law, hygiene and management. Its purpose is to give a comprehensive view of the whole school situation, rather than an intensive view of a particular problem. It is designed for use in college classes, the members of which are either preparing for teaching or regard a knowledge of school problems as essential to intelligent citizenship. The book furnishes material for an introductory course in education for prospective teachers. It also supplies the subject matter of a liberal study for those who do not intend to teach. It is significant in these times, when education is distinctly handicapped because of apparent disinterest on the part of the public, that textbooks are being prepared and college classes organized which will awaken an interest in educational matters on the part of those who will assume positions of leadership in the next decade.

The first chapter, entitled The General Welfare, points out the relationship between public welfare and intelligent citizenship. On the one hand, the importance of such matters as a trained mind, economic independence, care of the offspring, social and political interests, leisure occupations and health are discussed; and, on the other hand, the limitations imposed by illiteracy are deplored. After establishing a fundamental point of view in the first chapter, Sechrist devotes the remainder of the book to a discussion of the essential means and problems of education, which he outlines as follows:

"A public sentiment for schools as expressed by a material provision for them; a proper distribution of emphasis; the physical presence of the children; how to keep them in school until the aims of education are satisfied;

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how to house them; how to keep them well; what to do for the dullards; how to develop character thru management; how to make the mind efficient; how to develop the individual thru the group; how to organize the school program; how to vitalize school work; how to increase resistance to physical, mental, and moral ills; the home and the community as means of education and as avenues of expression for children at school."

The fact was pointed out earlier that this book contains numerous very significant suggestions of a practical character. It is apparent, however, that a book that attempts to discuss as many problems as are outlined above can give only a limited amount of attention to each. Sechrist points out this limitation in his preface. Provision is made thru well selected references in the appendix for pursuing each problem far beyond the scope of the book if the reader or a class has the time and inclination to do so.

A considerable amount of attention is given to such matters as original assets of character, the problem of the emotions, factors in self-control, and mental development thru attitudes. In the past these matters have been discussed in somewhat general and abstract terms. Mr. Sechrist is to be congratulated on his simple, straightforward, untechnical discussion of these problems. Questions arise concerning the validity of devoting eighty pages to such issues in a book that is designed to give a general view of the school and its problems.

Since this book will be read extensively by laymen, it is to be regretted that a larger amount of space was not devoted to a discussion of the responsibility of the home and the necessity for intelligent cooperation of parents and teachers in the education of children. Only a limited number of pages are devoted specifically to such issues.

School of Education,
The University of Chicago
William S. Gray

The study of nations; an experiment in social education—By Harriet E. Tuell. Chapters on China and Japan, by Kenneth Scott Latourette. Edited by Henry Suzzallo. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1919. 190 p.

This little volume is a valuable handbook for teachers in conducting a course on national traits and their develop-

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ment in place of the usual high school course in modern history. It is based on three years of the author's experiment with classes in the high school of Somerville, which had studied Community Civics in their first year and European History to 1700 in their second year before taking up the *Study of nations*, this experiment being the outgrowth of suggestions contained in the Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association, which appeared in 1916 under the title, "The Social Studies in Secondary Education." The principles and possibilities of the new course were set forth by Mr. Clarence D. Kingsley, State Supervisor of High Schools for Massachusetts, in an article printed in School and Society, January 8, 1916, in which he proposed the substitution of the *Study of nations* for modern history.

The aim of the sponsors of the new course is to cultivate "a sympathetic understanding" of the foreign nations, "an intelligent appreciation of their contribution to civilization, and a just attitude toward them" on the part of future American voters, in view of the new rôle which the United States has been playing in world affairs during the last twenty years, giving thus "definite social purpose" in place of the heterogeneous aims hitherto attributed to the study of history, but lately much questioned in certain quarters.

Miss Tuell is frank to say that the plan presented in the volume before us should be regarded as merely tentative, that the choice of material is difficult, and that the instructor should attack the subject at the point of the pupil's immediate use for history, that is, the teacher should lay hold on the pupil's interest in the present as the means of directing his steps to the desired explanations which the past alone affords. The class, then, starts with a problem which must be given its appropriate setting, and for the solution of which the teacher must have carefully selected the material and skilfully planned its use in such wise as to supply the events in both their chronological and logical order. The problem, or natural, method does not require that history should be taught backwards, nor does it resort

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to current events; but it begins with the existing characteristics of a nation's civilization and gathers into an historical resumé only those factors which serve to make clear the development of these characteristics. Thus each nation is studied by itself as a great community, and time and clearness are both gained by the elimination of much of the detail that clogs the course in modern history. The legitimate hope is to conserve the crop of turnips by a judicious process of thinning.

This method, however, does not dispense with the use of books, maps, periodicals, and newspapers. On the contrary, it demands wide and unremitting reading on the part of the instructor and the assignment of adequate references on successive topics to the pupils. It is freely admitted that the teacher who undertakes such a course must have ample time for preparation day by day, and that, while the pupils must study their textbook at certain periods of the work, they are required to resort to the library for the most part. The class has more opportunity for self-expression than is afforded in the old-fashioned recitation.

Good judgment is necessary in choosing the first nation to be studied in order to get one that illustrates the great movements of the world's history and one that will appeal strongly to the students. The French Republic fills this bill, and, in the author's view, George Meredith's *Ode to France, 1870*, supplies the key to French national characteristics. Hence, the land of France and its handicrafts are first studied, other phases of the national development being considered in turn. At the close of her chapter on France, Miss Tuell appends ten pages of topical outline and reading references.

England comes next, the significant watchwords for this nation being discovered to be the growth of English liberties and the march of empire and British commerce. The treatment of the former topic calls for the review of English constitutional history from 1215 to 1917 and that of the latter from the period of English exploration thru the World War. A topical outline and list of references of fourteen pages complete this chapter.

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In similar fashion the remaining chapters deal with Germany, Russia, Italy, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Turkey and the Balkan States, the Great War, China, Japan, and the Philippine Islands. The Philippines are introduced as an example of nation-building. One wonders why Belgium, Holland, the Scandinavian countries, and Poland should have been left out, and one could easily find ground for thinking that Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Russia are the least satisfactorily dealt with among the nations that have been included. Nevertheless, the book contains many good suggestions and a fundamental scheme for the overhauling of history instruction in those secondary schools which employ competent teachers in the subject. Properly applied, the problem method would relieve the history class of many cluttering and unnecessary facts, bring cause and effect to light, throw into bolder relief the historical movements that are of enduring importance, and enable young Americans to appreciate the great services and contributions, as well as the disastrous shortcomings, of other nations.

It is to be hoped that the experiments with the course on the *Study of nations* which have been in progress in the Horace Mann School in Teachers College at Columbia, in the Technical High School at Newton, Massachusetts, and in other schools, will be recorded in one or another of our educational publications for the benefit of all those interested in the best methods of history teaching.

WILBUR H. SIEBERT

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY,
COLUMBUS, OHIO

The death of the western world.—First Volume: *Appearance and reality*—By OSWALD SPENGLER. Munich. C. H. Beck Book Company. 1920 615 p.[1]

Some may remember a vivid little sketch of H. L. Mencken's appearing in the Atlantic Monthly (November,

[1] DER UNTERGANG DES ABENDLANDES, *Umrisse einer Morphologie der Weltgeschichte*, von Oswald Spengler. Erstes Band: *Gestalt und Wirklichkeit*. Beck: München, 1920. Other works of same author: *Preussentum und Sozialismus* and *Introduction* to Ernest Droem's *Poems*.

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1914) shortly after the outbreak of the war—"The Mailed Fist and its Prophet." Needless to say, this unconscious and unwilling prophet was Friedrich Nietzsche. And there is more plausibility than is usual to attempts to let the voice of a man be the voice of a group in taking some expressions of Nietzsche's to stand for the "collective thought" of the Germany of that day. I recall a few of Mencken's phrases:

"Upon the young intellectuals, the rulers of to-morrow, his (Nietzsche's) influence was immediate and profound. Not only did they hail him as a sound and convincing critic of that orthodoxy they instinctively shrank from and longed to dispose of, but they also found promise in the theory of the universe he proposed to set up in its stead.

"That theory of his was full of the confidence and lordliness of youth; it was the youngest philosophy that the world has seen since the days of the Greeks; it made no concession whatever to the intellectual toryism of old age, the timidity and inertia of so-called experience. And if it was thus young, and perhaps a bit juvenile, then let us not forget that Germany was young too. Here, indeed, was the youngest of all the nations, the baby among the powers. The winds of great adventure were still sharp and spicy to its nostrils; it felt the swelling of its muscles, the itch of its palm on the sword-hilt; it gazed out upon the world proudly, steadily, disdainfully. And here, of its own blood, was a philosopher who gave validity, nay, the highest validity, to its impulses, its appetites, its ambitions. Here was a sage who taught that the supreme type of man was the Ja-sager, the yes-sayer.

"Barbarous? Ruthless? Unchristian? No doubt. But so is life itself. So is all progress worthy of the name * * * "

Thus a writer (only one among many) in 1914, was seeing Germany and the world thru Nietzsche's eyes. And now, in 1920, another "historian" takes Nietzsche's place. On comparing these two historians, we get an impression of such change and contrast as a dramatist might have planned, had he been creating a hero to live thru and react to such hopes and horrors as Germany has lived thru in these six years and must have reacted to in some way; if not in Spengler's, than in another—I give the picture for what it is worth.

Since the days when Nebuchadnezzar dreamed and Daniel had "visions of his head upon his bed," we have been more or less accustomed to behold the kingdoms of this earth as mortals—man or beast, or both—that

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share with man and beast the prospect of death. Only, the ways of life and death have somewhat changed with the ages. In those old days death was commonly so violent a thing that we are not surprised to find the prophet expecting the end of one beast at the teeth and claws of another. But in our milder times it is natural that those who reflect on the mortality of kingdoms should be led to think of the manner of their taking off as more in the likeness of a sickening and dying from within than of battle, murder, and suddenness.

"To the same cause," wrote Winwood Reade, some fifty years ago, "may be traced the ruin and the fall, not only of Egypt, but of all the powers of the ancient world; of Ninevah, and Babylon, and Persia; of the Macedonian Kingdom and the Western Empire. As soon as those nations became rich they began to decay. If this were the fifth century and we were writing history in the silent melancholy streets of Rome, we should probably propound a theory entirely false, yet justified at that time by the universal experience of mankind. We should declare that nations are mortal like the individuals of which they are composed; that wealth is the poison, luxury the disease which shortens their existence and dooms them to an early death." (All that Reade had come to regard as "false" in the picture is the diagnosis: not riches, but too great inequality in their distribution, is the fatal disease to which had succumbed these imperial "men outworn.")

Well, Spengler has in his turn come upon the conception of "Kulturen" as persons. With a naiveté difficult to account for in a man of his overwhelming lore, he is beyond measure impressed with the originality of this insight. Not indeed as a gesture of personal vanity does he insist again and again upon the regeneration of history that this new compelling idea must bring with it—rather is there something apostolic in the simplicity and sincerity of his enthusiasm. But no matter for that—and for that matter there is something new in his interpretation of these culture-lives; it is his theory of their death. For not by violence nor by possibly avoidable "poison" or conceivably preventable "disease" do they die; but just of that most fatal of all internal ailments—*old age*. And the name of old age is—*civilization!*

In the last paragraph that portentous word "fate" crept on us unannounced. Yet it is *the* word of the death of the western world. But if unannounced, this "fate"

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(*Schicksal*) can not have come upon us unexpected. We had been speaking of life—is not birth a fatality, and do not all who are born "stagger thru the four ages of life to death" fatally bound for that goal? Wherefore if the cultures of India, of Greece, of Arabia, of Western Europe are to be viewed as persons, then however different their "physiognomies," they must spend themselves in similar ways to the same conclusion.

"Every culture runs thru the ages of an individual man. Each has its childhood, its youth, its prime, its senility. A young shyly divining soul reveals itself in the morning-time of the Romanic and Gothic period. It fills the Faustian landscape from the Provence of the Troubadours down to Bishop Bernward's Hildersheim. Here blows the wind of Spring * * * a like childhood speaks in the kindred tones of Early-Homeric Doric, of Late Christian (*i. e.*, Early-Arabic) art, and of the Old Kingdom of Egypt. In all these a mythical world-sense struggles with what is dark and demoniac in itself and in nature as with a thing of sin, slowly maturing the while toward a pure luminous expression of personality won and grasped * * * * At first all was cramped, confused, tentative, full of childish wistfulness and childish timidity (think of the church doors of Saxony and Southern France, consider the vases of the Dipylon). But now in full consciousness of ripe power (as in the age Sisostris, of the Peisistratidae, of Justinian I, of Charles V.'s Spain) all the details of expression are controlled, severe, measured, of a wonderful lightness and intelligibility. Here we find everywhere instances of luminous perfection, influences that brought into being the Hyksos Sphinx of Tanis, the dome of St. Sophia's, the painting of Titian. Later—delicate, almost fragile, melancholy with the sweetness of late October days—are the Aphrodite of Gnidos and the Chorus-hall of the Erechtheion, the arabesques of the Saracen horse-shoe arch, the Dresden "Zwinger," Watteau, Mozart. At last—in the stage of senility we call civilization—the soul fire is extinguished. A declining vigor makes one more effort at creation with half-success: Classicism, a stranger to no dying culture; Romanticism, a weary soul thinking back over its childhood. Then tired, disillusioned and cold, it relaxes its hold on existence and longs—as in Roman times—to return out of the light back into the darkness of soulless mysticism, back to the mother's lap, to the grave. Herein was the spell the cults held for dying Rome—those of Isis, Serapis, Horus, Mithras—the same cults which a soul just then awakening in the East was making the first dream-like, timid expression of its Being and was filling with new meaning." (p. 154–5.)

There is, what I should think, would be a melancholy fascination for our author in scrutinizing the "physiognomy" of these heoric figures as they pass, in divining the culture-soul beneath historic gesture. But what is deepest in this or any soul is its attitude toward the coming into being and passing away of things, toward *Sein* and *Werden*.

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India would fain have forgotten both *Sein* and *Werden* to lose itself in Nichtsein-Nirvana. Egypt could not forget, with a passion for remembering, it eternalized in the tomb what time would have let pass. The Antique (Graeco-Roman) absorbed in the luminous here and now was without perspective of time or space: *Der Grieche . . . . . niemals wurde, sondern immer war* (12). Alone among these the Modern (Western European) soul has that deep sense of participation in a larger life which makes it ever seek its meaning in what lies beyond it. Wistfully, like a note in some musical theme, its movement hangs suspended between what went before and what is to come.

It is in showing how the undertone of its soul is to be felt in every expression of a culture that Spengler spends what I have called his "overwhelming lore." Yet, as I have said, the fascination this task has for him must be a sombre one. For as we watch the great cultures come and go, however inspired—whether by *Nichtsein*, *Sein*, or *Werden*—they pass on their fatal way, nor leave anything behind by which others may better than they conquer fate. Do I say they leave nothing? They have left the record of their having been, from which the modern soul imbued with the spirit of history may not indeed conquer, but better than any who have gone before know the ways of destiny.

With this knowledge we approach the author's "narrower theme"—this Western World of ours: Everything about it shows it to be civilized, which is to say near its latter end. But nothing shows this more clearly than that dream of imperialism of which Germany was the supreme expression.

"Here I teach that we must look upon imperialism as the typical symbol of passing away. Its petrified remains may endure for centuries and millenia handed from one conquering fist to another—so it was with the kingdoms of Egypt, China, Rome, the Indian world and the world of Islam—but they were dead bodies, amorphous, soul-bereft masses of men, the used material of great histories. Imperialism is pure civilization. In this manifestation is revealed beyond gainsaying the fate of the Western World." (p. 51.)

One recalls the famous phrase of Maximilian Harden, "*Wir haben es gewollt!*" This is the spirit of our opening

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paragraph—of the Prophet of the mailed fist. How different does the gigantic thing that Harden's people had "willed" appear to the reflective, retrospective gaze of Spengler:

"Expansion!" It is the master word of imperialism. "It expresses the most characteristic tendency of every matured civilization; so it was of the Roman, the Arabic, the Chinese. Here there is no room for choice. Here neither the conscious will of the individual nor of whole classes and peoples decides the issue. The expansive tendency is a thing of destiny, something demoniac and non-human (*Ungeheures*) that seizes the late comer on the world stage, compels him into its service, and uses him, whether he will or no, whether he knows or not." And our author adds by way of a note "the modern Germans are the shining example of a people who without knowing or willing it became expansionists. They were so already in the days when they thought themselves Goethe's people. Bismarck never even suspected this deeper meaning in the epoch he founded. He believed that he had come to the end of a political development." (p. 52.)

One can not have followed Spengler so far without wondering what last word he will have for the individual caught in this fatal life-trend of a *Kultur*. It would, I think, be this:

"Who can not understand that nothing of this conclusion can be modified, that a man must will this or nothing at all, that we must love this destiny or despair of the future and of life,—who can not feel the bigness of Reality as the higher intelligence sees it, of the energy and discipline of iron hard natures, of this struggle with the coldest and abstractest of media,—who goes about with the idealism of a provincial and craves the manner of life of a time past—such a one must give up hope of understanding history, of living history, of making history." (p. 53.)

Perhaps, after all, here is a way of reconciling the "*Wir haben es gewollt*" of Harden and the "we neither knew nor willed, but now that we know *ought* to will" of Spengler. It is the self-dedication of the Imperial Stoic "Thy will be my will, O Destiny."

"A horizonless throng of humanity, a shoreless flood coming out of that dark past in which our sense of time loses its power to order and which restless, troubled fancy pictures in a witch's dream of geological periods behind which lies a riddle beyond solving, losing itself in an equally timeless future—this is the medium over which the forms of human history pass. Its vast surface moves with the monotonous wave—rhythm of countless generations * * * * * Over it the great cultures send out their majestic rings. Of a sudden they appear, spread in splendid contours, subside, disappear, and the mirror-like surface of the deep lies sleeping and solitary as before." (p. 153.)

University of Pennsylvania Edgar A. Singer

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Exercices Francais oraux et écrits. By M. S. Pargment. The Macmillan Co. 1920.

This work appears in two volumes, the first of 218 pages, the second, of 253. Each volume can be used independently, and each volume contains sixty lessons. At the close of the lessons are given supplementary exercises, very well constructed, and a *Précis de Grammaire* in French. The two volumes are written in impeccable French, and are intended for students who have had a year's study of the language. Order and logical sequence prevail thruout the work, which is based on the excellent methods in use in France.

Each lesson consists of three parts: grammar, vocabulary, construction of sentences. Variety is introduced in every fourth lesson by the introduction of outlines for development by the students. All three of the divisions of the lessons show in the author both skill, and, what is even rarer, originality. Few will find the grammar dull in this book. It is not presented in the condensed, tabloid form which has filled so many generations with dismay, but simply, naturally. In the following example, drawn from Lesson XXXV of the Première Partie, note the method of presenting the verbs, also the nature of the sentences by which this is done:

"I. Grammaire. Verbes irréguliers.

Mettre le verbe entre parenthéses au présent de l'indicatif en le faisant accorder avec le sujet:

1. Les rides (écrire) l'âge sur le front. 2. La beauté, quelle qu'elle soit ne (valoir) pas la bonté. 3. Quine (dire mot (consentir) (Proverbe). 4. Les grandes pensées (venir) du coeur. 5. Souvent la peur d'un mal nous (conduire) dans un pire (Boileau). 6. On garde sans remords ce qu'on (acquérir) sans crime (Corneille). 7. Nous (recevoir) la vérité comme les champs (recevoir) la rosée du ciel (Lamennais). 8. Tout (venir) à point à qui (savoir) attendre (Proverbe). 9. Nous (devenir) moins confiants a mesure que nous avançons dans la vie. 10. Les livres (suivre) les moeurs, et les moeurs ne (suivre) pas les livres

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(Th. Gautier). 11. Les arts ne (naitre) que chez les peuples libres."

These sentences are followed by a dozen others, all aiding in giving skilfully grammatical drill and all containing subject matter of genuine interest and value. Much of what is called grammar is thus learned indirectly and unconsciously, as the body develops by exercise rather than by medicine. Or, to change the metaphor, the student advances thru an animated and beautiful country, along an agreeable path which leads him to the right destination. If the sentences are formulated so that each brings out some grammatical point, equal praise must be given the careful and logical order in which the facts of grammar are presented.

A large and living vocabulary is taught thru definitions, association of ideas, synonyms and—what is newer—antonyms, derivations and many devices not easy to classify. The most vital and characteristic words are acquired and soon become for the learner so many living entities. He speedily comes to know representatives of the most important etymological and semantic classes, he is able to compare, to develop and to enlarge—in other words, his vocabulary is alive. If he does not carry his knowledge on to a high degree of attainment, it will be his fault.

The author continues to show originality in the third "division" of the lessons—sentence construction. This must of course be based on the two other "divisions"—grammar and vocabulary, and must move hand in hand with them. Practise in construction of sentences is given thru the means of contrasted ideas, paraphrasing and intelligent questions about short, carefully selected texts drawn from the best authors. What an encouragement to the students to meet in this manner these texts and to realize that he understands them! He feels that he is arriving somewhere, and he is not mistaken. Outlines are given from time to time of letters to be written in French, and these outlines are constructed with consummate skill. As to the paraphrasing, as here presented,

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it fills what some of us have always believed to be a gap in our language teaching. As a matter of fact, there are often various ways of saying a thing. Why not leave some latitude to the individual? We have neglected the fact that our vocabulary is to some extent personal; that we draw words as we need them from our passive vocabulary and add them to our active store, and that we do so often in our own way. Each fourth lesson offers aid in what may be called free composition, and this aid will be found of immense importance to the teacher, who is eager to see the best results. What has just been said should not be taken to mean that the work before us provides no material for hard and fast translation of the old sort. By no means. Carefully graded texts from French and English writers offer an opportunity for practise in exact translation.

At the close of each volume is found a brief reference grammar in French, whose presentation is a model of clarity and concision. Each volume is thus complete in itself.

To read the *Exercices Francais* is to meet one of the richest collections of aphorisms and profound thoughts of great French writers. For this alone, if for nothing else, we should owe M. Pargment an enduring debt of gratitude.

RAYMOND WEEKS

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK CITY

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IX

NOTES AND NEWS

Labor union colleges

The interest of labor unions in education and their consistent efforts to advance the cause everywhere can not be doubted. One may question the wisdom of some of their activities, such as their recent efforts to induce teachers' organizations to form an alliance with them, but their genuine desire to abolish illiteracy, make schools universal, and secure liberal support for education of every sort has been evident during the entire history of unionism. Their influence in promoting public and free education, both in this country and England, is patent to anyone who has investigated the social or educational movements of the last century. Likewise, thruout the past twenty years the unions have been most active in advocating educational reform. They have not been interested merely in vocational training and the education of their own children, but have comprehended every phase of public educational effort in their plans. The original Towner Educational Bill, afterward merged with that of Senator Smith, was introduced into the House at the request of the American Federation of Labor, and that body has furnished the combined measure with most loyal support in the course of its tortuous passage.

The latest venture seems to be labor union colleges or institutes. These institutions, which do not often claim the pretentious name of "college," have during the past few years been established in a net-work across the continent. They have been founded at New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Rochester, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Chicago, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Seattle, San Francisco, Los Angeles, and a variety of other centers. They seem not to have been started by any concerted effort, but to have sprung up spontaneously thru common needs. In

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this month's EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, Mr. Anderson maintains that the prime causes of their development have been a growing sense of power and responsibility on the part of the labor unions and dissatisfaction with the kind and amount of education furnished by the state, but there is the widest diversity in the degree of cooperation of the unions with the public schools and even with each other in founding these institutions. In several cities the colleges are held in public school buildings or the public library, and are manned largely by voluntary or paid teachers from the public schools. In other places the work is conducted at the Labor Temple (in Los Angeles under the Board of Education) or in rented rooms. But the classes are generally supported, controlled, and administered entirely by one or more labor unions.

The aim of these trade union colleges is not so much to furnish a vocational training as it is to give the student an understanding of what life is and furnish him with social and economic orientation. The Executive Council of the Federation holds in its Report for 1919:

> "It is important that the industrial education which is being fostered and developed should have for its purpose not so much training for efficiency in industry as training for life in an industrial society. A full understanding must be had of those principles and activities that are the foundation of all productive efforts. Children should not only become familiar with tools and materials, but they should also receive a thoro knowledge of the principles of human control, of force and matter underlying our industrial relations and sciences."

Possibly they also hope incidentally to bring about some reformation of the entire present scheme of society along the line of workers' control. This aim is as yet inchoate, but it is implied in the argument for the "Conference on Workers' Education in the United States," held in New York last month:

> "The training which is offered by existing educational agencies is concerned mainly with such interpretation of life as justifies things as they are, instead of planning things as they should be, particularly in connection with the life of the workers."

In keeping with these objectives, we find that courses in

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economics, housing problems, history of trade unionism and of labor legislation, modern history, commerce, law, citizenship, philosophy, discussion and parliamentary practise, public speaking, English composition and literature, physical education, health, and recreation, are offered more frequently than those in arithmetic, chemistry, or the industrial or household arts. Consequently, university professors and prominent labor leaders, as well as public school teachers, are in many instances engaged to conduct the classes. These courses are presented skilfully by specialists, who foster the utmost freedom of discussion by the students. Classes are generally held in the evening, and one hour is given to the lecture and a second to informal discussion. The teacher is regarded rather as a friend and guide than as a master, and endeavors to avoid *ex cathedra* or dogmatic utterances. An effort is made to depart from the old academic traditions and furnish students with the material they want, rather than with what some academic group thinks they ought to have. The students feel that the classes belong to themselves, and they take a real pride in them.

This movement, if it continues to develop, may well have a reflex influence upon the public schools. It may even produce a radical reform in popular education. It is certainly to be hoped that it may fertilize the common schools with some of its ideals and methods. If it can infuse a social and ethical aim into public education, remove the gulf between teacher and pupil, and dispel the notion that boards of education own the schools, instead of being fellow servants of the community with the teachers, it will have fulfilled a valuable mission for education. On the other hand, there is always the danger that these colleges become largely nests of propaganda, altho they seem to have avoided it thus far. Their chief aim should be to make themselves unnecessary. If there is any function of education that requires attention, it should be made possible to carry it out under public auspices. These classes of the labor unions may well continue as long as it is necessary to cause the public educa-

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tional service to modify its attitude, but they should be regarded as a makeshift developed to meet our present educational incapacity for wider vision, and they can not meanwhile afford to narrow their own outlook. Until the public system awakens to the necessity for breaking down its bureaucratic walls, and of developing a social aim, a sense of intimacy between pupils and teacher, and a feeling of pride in the schools themselves, the trade union colleges may find an effective place in education, if they choose.

Teaching thrift The fall in prices during the last six months plainly indicates that "conspicuous expenditure" has passed its peak. The orgy of spending, especially on the part of those whose means had hitherto been extremely limited and who had profited greatly by the war industries, seems now to have been replaced by a wide-spread consumers' strike. But there is still much waste and extravagance in evidence, and it is likely that by fall the hydra-headed profiteer will again raise his ugly visages. Luxuries will be deemed necessities by many unable to afford them, and there may again be a frenzied period of buying on credit, squandering of time, dissipation of strength and energy, and indulgence in practises detrimental to health and happiness. The worst of such a situation is that such wasteful and harmful tendencies are constantly before boys and girls, and their immature and impressionable minds are all too liable to form habits of waste, carelessness, and extravagance, which may well cling thru life.

To preach thrift will not be sufficient. Evangelism can at best furnish only ideals; habit formation and permanent influence can be attained only by education. It is obvious that we need a real program of thrift training; and the appointment of a Committee on Thrift Education, with an investigator of the reputation of Dr. Arthur H. Chamberlain, of San Francisco, as chairman, would appear to be one of the most timely of the National Education Association's recent activities.

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There are at least two obstacles to the introduction of the subject of thrift into the present curricula of our elementary and secondary schools. In the first place, there is a lack of understanding on the part of people generally as to what is meant by "thrift." There is commonly accepted a narrow interpretation that would make the grasping and avaricious individual appear as an exemplar of thrift, while he who spends freely under any circumstances would be characterized as lacking in thrift. We need to realize that the one who saves and hoards may often be the more wasteful. We must get away from the mere savings-bank idea of thrift and emphasize its social meanings and human aspects. Another objection to the adoption of thrift training springs from the feeling that there is no room for this subject in the elementary school curriculum, and that, now the war is over, the fundamentals—reading, writing, and arithmetic—should be restored to the original position of importance. But this so-called "new" study may be just as fundamental and necessary as some of the well-established school studies, and can best be taught in connection with them. Thrift should be correlated with the older subjects, not only because the curriculum is overcrowded, but because thrift, to function adequately, must find its application to problems of every-day life. Or, we may quite as well say, school subjects should be given a thrift setting.

In the elementary school, one of the most effective points of correlation is that of thrift and biography. Men and women that have achieved success appeal especially to boys and girls, and whether in the fields of pioneering, statesmanship, science, invention, literature, or commerce, these successful people have ever been living examples of thrift. They have employed their time well and devoted otherwise idle moments to the pursuit of knowledge; they have made careful and wise investments; they have watched the small leaks and checked waste; they have practised the moral virtues and developed physical fitness; they have concentrated their energies, profited by the experiences of others, and modified plans and methods to square with the progressive spirit of their day.

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Another means of correlation is arithmetic, especially as all regular book lessons in this subject need to be enriched and amplified. Numerous problems involving the fundamental operations and embodying thrift elements may be used. There are problems involving comparative costs and values; the use of time, wastage of food or materials; income from investments; saving as a result of wise planning and management, of paying bills promptly, and of watching the leaks. The keeping of a personal budget, and home and school accounting; systematic or cooperative buying, and saving resulting from care of personal belongings, all have a place in the arithmetic course. Fractions, percentage, and commission may thus become interesting and instructive, and thrift arithmetic can be made so real and tangible as to show the pupil the value of mathematics in his after-life.

Any form of industrial education—domestic science and art, shopwork and vocational courses—and every other subject in the elementary curriculum may profitably be viewed in the light of its relation to thrift and economy, and will make a ready appeal to boys and girls. Similarly, in the high and even the intermediate school, the principles of elementary economics are needed and can be best understood when approached from the standpoint of thrift. The law of supply and demand, in so far as it finds application to-day, may properly be set forth. The nature and value of service rendered and the financial rewards therefor; relation of employer to employed and of individual to individual, find foundations in thrift. Media of exchange, the development of barter and trade, buying and selling, production, manufacture and distribution of goods, commercial practises and credit systems, cooperation and competition, banking and accounts, embody problems of thrift in action—social, moral, physical, financial, personal, community, and national thrift. The need for conservation of our national resources of soil, water, timber, and minerals, the use of by-products and the elimination of waste, should likewise be brought forcibly before students of secondary grade.

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In fine, all the studies of our schools are closely related to the problems of thrift, and may be taught most effectively in connection with this important subject. The educational world will follow with great interest the suggestions of Dr. Chamberlain's committee and the way in which they work out in the actual conduct of the schools. Something must be done for our young people, who are to be the leaders of the next generation, if we hope to emerge from the morass of wastefulness into which the War has led us.

Free nature education. An effective movement for the extension of education in natural science has for some years been conducted by the American Museum of Natural History for the school children of New York. More than a generation ago this great institution began its educational work by giving lecture courses for teachers at the Museum, and depositing loan collections for teaching natural history in the schools of the city. During the past seventeen years it has extended its service by circulating nature study collections among schools and libraries, and furnishing lectures for the pupils at the Museum and at the schools themselves. A guide service has also been inaugurated to assist and direct study at the Museum, and special provision has been made for the nature education of blind children.

At present this service is extended to all the schools in the Boroughs of Manhattan, Bronx, Brooklyn, Queens, and Richmond. About one hundred and fifty lectures are given each year to many thousands of school children, and almost a thousand collections are circulated among some five hundred schools. In all, more than one million school children are being reached. The collections now comprise minerals, rocks, woods, sponges, corals, sea-urchins, starfishes, mollusks, worms, crabs, insects, birds, and small mammals, and the teaching value is many times enhanced by the fact that the individual specimens may be removed from the cases and utilized for close observation. The lectures are given by a corps of teachers specially trained to instruct the young, and include such fields as life of land and sea, structure

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of rocks and minerals, life and development of animals, life of plants and economic uses of woods, natives of America and other countries, native art, primitive and modern industry, local history of New York, carriers and control of disease germs, and water supply and sanitation.

Thus has the old idea of a museum as a safe deposit or conservative force largely given way to the new museum concept of an educational and democratizing force. Institutions of this sort, too, are found to have a teaching value that is peculiarly their own, which can not be supplied by the school or college. The service they render is animated by a sense of ethical obligation and public duty, and springs from the realization that the general intelligence and welfare of the people are the prime reasons for the existence of a museum. This new idea has been developed especially during the past dozen years, since Dr. Henry Fairfield Osborn became President of the corporation, and Dr. George H. Sherwood was made curator of the Department of Public Education. A full account of this museum instruction and educational extension is given in a bulletin by Dr. Sherwood, entitled Free Nature Education, by the American Museum of Natural History. And it is the recognition of this lofty interpretation of the Museum's function that has induced the present government of the City of New York, altho hard pressed for funds, to contribute $353,000 toward the maintenance of the American Museum during the year 1921. Even a political body can appreciate the importance of educating the people.

Reorganization of science in secondary schools

The Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, appointed by the National Education Association, has at length been able to issue its report on science in secondary schools. The work has been in charge of a committee consisting of forty-seven teachers, who have been busily engaged upon it for the past seven years. This committee was organized on the basis of a small supervisory committee,

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with subcommittees representing each of the sciences included in the report.

In order that the freest possible discussion might be secured, conferences concerning the material to be included in the report have been held in all parts of the country. Studies have been made of progressive experiments in science teaching in many schools, and the results of these experiments have been included in the report. Due to these conferences and to the progressive work upon which they were based, much of the material included in this report has already been incorporated into the practise of many schools. The report, therefore, is not so much an argument as to what ought to be done in the schools as it is a record of work already accomplished by progressive science teachers.

Some of the topics covered in it are the aims, methods, and organization of the sciences as a whole in secondary education; general principles governing the selection of material and its presentation; science sequences recommended for various types of schools; the principal courses in science—general science, biological sciences, chemistry, and physics; and the qualifications for a successful science teacher. Each of these topics is treated under a detailed outline, and with abundant reference to content of courses and methods of presentation.

Thru an agreement with the National Education Association, the United States Bureau of Education is publishing all the reports of the Commission. This report on The Reorganization of Science in Secondary Schools, which has recently appeared, is known as "Bulletin, 1920, No. 26," and may be secured from the Superintendent of Documents in Washington. It will be of great service to many school officers and teachers.

The Boise survey

Notes and news for February was devoted to a general account of typical school surveys that have been made recently, but it failed to include any survey that might be representative of a western city. Yet some of the best and most instructive investigations

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that have been made are those of municipalities in the west, such as Salt Lake, Butte, and Portland. The report on Boise City, Idaho, is much later than any of these, and, having the benefit of their example, has profited by it. While it deals very largely with technical school problems and treats them in a thoroly scholarly way, it is written in a style easily understood by the average school board member or taxpayer. The tables are easy to interpret and the graphic illustrations are among the best that have yet appeared. Chapters of especial value have been written on Organization and Administration, Buildings and Grounds, Educational and Vocational Guidance, and Costs and Business Management.

While pointing out strongly the defects in the existing educational organization of Boise, the survey does not content itself with destructive criticism, but offers specific suggestions for improvement in each instance. The surveyors, Professors J. B. Sears and William M. Proctor, of Stanford University, and J. Harold Williams, of the California Bureau of Research, followed the comparative method of attack, so effectively used by Dr. Cubberley in the Salt Lake and Portland surveys and elsewhere. Comparisons are made between Boise and twenty-five other American cities of about the same size—25,000 to 35,000 in population—as to growth, composition of population, financial resources, amounts spent on education per capita, and in relation to other municipal expenses.

The Ayres Handwriting and Spelling tests and the Cleveland Arithmetic tests were used in measuring the efficiency of instruction. As revealed by these tests, Boise appears to stand well up with the larger cities that have been surveyed recently, altho marked differences between schools were shown to exist. Likewise there seemed to be slight correlation between time spent in the study of spelling and arithmetic and the scores attained by different schools.

The report affords a concrete study of a western city of moderate size, and will be of real service for reference and for use in university classes on educational administration.

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A survey of religious education

A survey of a somewhat more specialized tho less concentrated character, is that which was projected by the Interchurch World Movement of North America. Among other projects, this organization undertook a survey of religious education. The survey was organized in two main departments, known as the "American Educational Division" and the "American Religious Educational Division" respectively. The former aspect of the survey is making a thoro study of denominational and independent institutions, theological seminaries and training schools, tax supported institutions, and secondary, elementary, and mission schools. Its schedules cover such items as history, organization, standards, size of faculty, hours of teaching required, academic freedom and tenure of office, facts relating to the student body, social life, religious activities, the curriculum, community and social service, physical and financial conditions. The religious education aspect of the survey, with which we are chiefly concerned here, has to do with an inquiry into the religious-educational activities of the church, the home, and other community agencies. The purposes of this survey are defined as follows:

"1. To secure a definite body of facts upon which to base a program of religious education which may be budgeted in terms of men and money, and with which to persuade the people of the country of the wisdom of such program.

2. To establish standards and forms as a basis of measuring religious educational methods, processes, and institutions.

3. To lay the foundation for a uniform system of educational statistics and measurements in the field of moral and religious education.

4. To establish scientific methods of approach to the problem of moral and religious education for the guidance of local leaders, churches, and communities in the erection of programs and budgets.

5. To interpret and evaluate the data gathered in terms of the standards adopted.

6. To present results in concrete and graphic form."

The scope of this survey of religious education, so far as

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it relates to the church and Sunday school, includes physical equipment, individual accounting, curriculum or program activities, organization and administration, supervision, teachers and officers, and finance. In addition to the church schedules, there is a survey of religious education in the home, of community music, pageantry and art, community systems of religious education, week day and vacation Bible schools, moral and religious education in public schools and in special schools for defectives and delinquents. The survey of the home would seem to be particularly difficult. It deals with a situation peculiarly baffling, in that it is an attempt to evaluate a type of religious education which is almost wholly destitute of a systematic program and recognized standards. It has been necessary, therefore, to construct schedules which will reveal actual conditions with such accuracy and fulness as to admit of reliable interpretation and yet reduce to a minimum the uncertainty involved in the personal equation of the investigator.

The territory covered by the Survey comprises continental United States, Alaska, Hawaii, and the West Indies. In each field a most intensive investigation is being pursued, and a careful study of the plan shows no evidence of undue narrowness in the conception of religion or of undue partisan bias toward any one theory of education. The schedules and questionnaires have been worked out by specialists, among whom are included some of the foremost leaders not only in religious education but in the broader field of general education. The data are being collected from selected communities so chosen as to give a fair picture of a wide variety of conditions. In all instances, the data are collected by professional investigators. When filled, the schedule will be examined by expert statisticians and the results carefully tabulated and interpreted.

A work of such magnitude will require time. It is expected, however, that tentative results may soon be available and the final reports issued some time this fall. These reports will assume the form of a series of monographs prepared by specialists, with a general summary volume pre-

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pared by the director, Professor Walter S. Athearn of Boston University. Those who have at heart the future of religious education will await with much anticipation the completion of this, the first serious attempt to survey the entire field in a scientific manner and in a national way. It is gratifying to learn that the temporary suspension of activities on the part of the Interchurch World Movement is not likely to prevent the completion of this important undertaking. Plans are now under way for the financing of the project thru the Sunday School Associations, whose interests are most vitally affected by the survey now so well under way.

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